लाल बहादुर शास्त्री राष्ट्रीय प्रशासन अकादमी L.B.S. National Academy of Administration मसरी MUSSOORIE

पुस्तकालय LIBRARY

अवाप्ति संख्या Accession No.	152 118782
वर्ग संख्या	R
Class No	491.439045
पुस्तक संख्या Book No	<u>fla</u>

A GRAMMAR

OF THE

HINDŪSTĀNĪ OR URDŪ LANGUAGE.

A

GRAMMAR

OF THE

HINDŪSTĀNĪ

OR

URDŪ LANGUAGE.

nv

JOHN T. PLATTS.

LATE AN INSPECTOR OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN THE CENTRAL PROVINCES OF INDIA.

LONDON:

WM. H. ALLEN & CO., 13, WATERLOO PLACE, S.W. PUBLISHERS TO THE INDIA OFFICE,

1874.

PREFACE.

THE Grammar now offered to the public was begun in India many years ago; but its progress was so retarded by illness, press of official work, and other causes, that on my return to England about eighteen months ago, scarcely a third of it was in a form ready for the press.

It owes its origin to certain Indian friends, whose arguments, backed by the results of my own reading and observation, led me to conclude—(1) that, much as had been achieved in the field of Urdū Grammar by Europeans (and especially by Englishmen), that field had not been so thoroughly worked but that a great deal more might be won from it; (2) that no small portion of the work which had been done was of a kind that afforded room for improvement.

In justification of the first of these opinions, I would refer my readers to the large quantity of what is believed to be absolutely new matter that is to be found in almost every part of this work, and especially in the sections which treat of—(1) gender; (2) numerals; (3) Persian and Arabic constructions; (4) causal verbs; (5) compound verbs; (6) particles; (7) derivation of words; and in almost every chapter of the Syntax. In support of the second, I would point to the sections which treat of the construction—(1) of verbs and adjectives in connection with the broken plurals of the Arabic; (2) of nominal and frequentative verbs; (3) of the accusative

VI PREFACE.

case; (4) of predicative adjectives in construction with factitive verbs; (5) of the participles; and also to the sections which notice the different uses of the fragmentary verbs hai and tha, and the tenses of the subjunctive mood. In respect of some of these, the views propounded are so directly opposed to those maintained by preceding grammarians, that I have felt constrained to support them by foot-notes, remarks, citations from native grammars, and the opinions of native scholars; and thus the work has to some extent assumed a polemical character, for which I consider that some apology is due. This I offer the more readily, as I am conscious of being actuated by no motive beyond the simple desire to establish what, supported by the best native authorities, I hold to be correct views of the constructions in question.

Besides the additions and changes referred to above, I may also, I believe, claim to have succeeded in reducing to rule some constructions which have hitherto been regarded as arbitrary. And here I may be permitted to observe that there is little in the structure of Urdū of the loose and arbitrary character which some recent writers on the grammar of the language impute to it. It may be difficult to discover the rules for certain constructions; and, in many instances, native scholars, no doubt, are unable to assign a satisfactory reason for the forms they use; but it is surely inconsequent to conclude from these facts that rules in such cases cannot be discovered, and that native scholars cannot be trusted to compose correctly in their own tongue. .That "writers are guided by usage rather than by rule, and test the accuracy of a passage by

PREFACE. vii

the ear rather than by any recognized law," is, in the main, true. But this practice is by no means confined to Urdū writers; nor are they a whit more liable to err in following the guidance of usage and the ear than the many excellent speakers and writers in other living tongues who follow the same guides. Indeed, as far as constructions which constitute the marked peculiarities of the language are concerned, it may be safely affirmed that Urdū writers of even ordinary ability are scarcely likely to make a slip. When therefore a form or expression occurs in one or more standard authors which appears to violate some well-known rule, a foreigner would do well to pause ere he condemns it as a "transgression"; for it is infinitely more probable that he has not understood the construction, than that the authors have committed a palpable solecism.

One of the features peculiar to this Grammar which I would notice here are the remarks and notes that touch upon the derivation and origin of words, and the formation of the cases and tenses—a subject upon which so much light has been thrown of late years by the study of comparative grammar. Students of Urdū and Hindi in the schools of India especially will, I trust, find this portion of the work both interesting and instructive; --- and not only students, but those also who speak and write Urdū with perfect facility and accuracy. For it is notorious that Urdū scholars (and especially Mohammadans) are grossly ignorant of the origin of such words and inflexions in their language as are not derived from the Persian and Arabic. And the general restriction of their studies to these languages alone puts it out of their power to acquire a knowledge of the

VIII PREFACE.

linguistic discoveries of modern philologists in fields lying apart from them.

The arrangement and nomenclature of the work differ somewhat from those of preceding grammars. clensions have been reduced to two; the numerals are noticed immediately after the attributive adjective; and the sections on Persian and Arabic constructions, treating as they do of substantives, adjectives, and numerals, it has been judged advisable to introduce immediately after the Urdū (Hindī) numerals, with the view of keeping the same parts of speech as much as possible together. These sections are, as has been already hinted, fuller and more complete than any notice of Persian and Arabic inflexions that has hitherto appeared in a grammar of Hindűstání. Full as they are however, it would be presumptuous to say that they comprise all the constructions that occur in the language. But I trust I may say that they contain few that do not occur. The student will find it to his advantage to read these sections through—without dwelling on them at first; but more carefully on a second perusal, after he has made some acquaintance with Urdū literature; for Persian and Arabic, although not the back-bone, so to speak, form very important members of Urdū, and hence a knowledge of some of the principal facts of their inflexion is indispensable to a correct understanding and use of the language.

The examples under the more important rules of the Syntax are numerous and varied. In their selection I have not confined myself to the Bāg o Bahār and a few other works compiled about the same comparatively remote period—works which, however excellent they

may be, can hardly be supposed to furnish examples of all the constructions and idioms current even in their day, much less of those now in use; and which may certainly be supposed to contain not a little that is now. obsolete or rare—but have also drawn from more modern works, such as the Fasāna'č 'Ajā'ib, the Urdū Reader (a work published under the authority of the Government of the N.W. Provinces of India), etc., and also from some of the best native newspapers; e.g. the Sho'la'e Tūr of Kanhpur, and the 'Aligarh Institute Gazette. Should the examples under some of the rules be regarded as too copious, I would urge the importance of the rules themselves in such cases, or the misconception that has hitherto prevailed respecting the constructions exemplified; and also that, while the copiousness of the examples is calculated to impress the rules on the student's mind, their generally varied character and full propositional form will have the advantage of introducing him to diversities both of idiom and style.

In the preparation of the work I have made free, but not, I trust, unfair, use of the Grammars of my predecessors, and especially of those published in recent years by native scholars: e.g. the Urdū Grammar of M. Imām Bakhsh of the Dehlī College; the Ķawā'idu'lmubtadī of M. Karīmu'd-dīn; the Ķawā'idě Urdū (a work published under the authority of the Government of the North-West Provinces of India). I have also obtained much assistance from the following works: (1) the Prākrita-Prakāśa of Professor Cowell; (2) the Sindhī Grammar of Dr. Trumpp (a work to which I am greatly indebted for direct help as well as numerous hints touching the derivation of Hindī words); (3) the Gram-

X PREFACE.

matica Linguae Persicae of Dr. Vullers; (4) the Arabic Grammar of Professor Wright. And, lastly, I have at various times obtained much valuable information from several native scholars in India, and especially from Maulavīs Shaikh 'Abdullāh of Kānhpūr, Moḥammad Rizā of Ilāhābād, 'Alī Aṣgar of Ajmer, and Ṣafdar 'Alī of Jabalpūr, to whom I take this opportunity of offering my grateful thanks for the aid they were always so ready to afford me in my Oriental studies.

In spite of the greatest possible care in preparing the MS. and correcting the press, some omissions and errors have been discovered in the work, and it is probable that others of a not very serious character (as, for example, the omission of dots and vowel marks) have escaped detection. It must not be imagined, however, that every instance of omission of a long vowel mark is an oversight. The Persian numeral $d\bar{u}$, for example, is generally written du, because the vowel is pronounced short; and the long vowel of the Arabic words $f\bar{\imath}$, $z\bar{u}$, etc., being always shortened in pronunciation before the conjunctive alif, is of course not marked long. A list of such errors as have been discovered is given further on, and the reader is requested to correct them in the text before perusing it.

JOHN T. PLATTS.

London, 1st November, 1873.

CONTENTS.

CHAP. I.	THE LETTERS AS CONSONANTS
	THE LETTERS, PRONUNCIATION OF
	THE VOWELS AND OTHER ORTHOGRAPHIC SIGNS
	Short Vowels
	Tanwin or Nunation
	Jazm 10
	Tashdīd
	Long Vowels and Diphthongs 11
	Hamza
	Waşl
	Madd 1
	Division of a Word into Syllables 12
	Numerical Value of the Letters , 2, 3, 18
	Special Numerical Figures
	Exercise in Reading
CHAP, II.	THE PARTS OF SPEECH
	I. THE ARTICLE
	II. THE NOUN-SUBSTANTIVE 23
	1. Gender
	Masculine by Form 2
	Feminine by Form 2
	Feminines formed from Masculines . 3
	2. Number
	Plural of Masculine Nouns 3
	Plural of Feminine Nouns 34
	3. Declension
	Postpositions used in forming the Cases 3
	The Formative 38
	The First Declension 39
	The Second Declension 49
	Construction of the Genitive Case 43
	III. THE ADJECTIVE
	Declension 44
	Comparison 46
	Intensive Forms
	Adjective of Similitude 48
	IV. Numerals 49
	Cardinals 50
	Ordinals' 55
	Collective Numerals 55
	Distributives and Multiplicatives 57
	Numeral Adverbs
	Fractional Numbers 58
	Rakam 60

CDDDC	T I T GOLDON TONTO TO			3.V
[PER	SIAN CONSTRUCTIONS		•	6
	GENDER AND DECLENSION OF NOUNS	•	•	6
	Construction of the Genitive Case			ϵ
	Compounds formed by Inverting	this	Con-	
	struction			ϵ
	Construction of the Vocative Case			ϵ
	Formation of the Plural			ϵ
	CONSTRUCTION OF AN ADJECTIVE		•	6
	Compounds formed by Inverting	this	Con-	
	struction	•	•	6
	Comparison of Adjectives			6
	THE INFINITIVE AND ROOT			6
	VERBAL ADJECTIVES			6
	Past and Passive Participles .			6
	Active Participles, Nouns of Ager	icy, c	etc	6
	SUFFIXES FORMING NOUNS OF AGENCY, ATTRIB			. 6
	Possessive Adjectives		<i>'</i>	7
	Negative Adjectives		•	7
	Adjectives denoting Similitude .			7
	Adjectives denoting Fitness .			7
	Relative Adjectives			7
•	Adjectives denoting Colour .		_	7
	Adjectives denoting Companionshi	n.		7
	Nouns of Place		_	7
	Abstract Nouns	•	•	8
	Diminutives		•	8
	()		•	8
	O1-4: O 1		•	8
	Numeral Adjectives	•	•	8
	Cardinals	•	•	8
	Ordinals	•	•	8
	Distributives	•	•	8
	Multiplicatives, and Numeral Adv	erba	•	8
15.00	- · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	C1 00	•	
AKAB	C CONSTRUCTIONS		•	8
	INFINITIVE OR VERBAL NOUNS OF THE GROU	ND F	DRM .	8
	Verbal Adjectives	•	•	8
	VERBAL NOUNS OF THE DERIVED FORMS .	•	•	9
	VERBAL ADJECTIVES OF THE DERIVED FORMS	3.	•	9
	Possessive Adjectives	•	•	9
	RELATIVE ADJECTIVES	•	•	9
	ABSTRACT NOUNS OF QUALITY		•	10
	Nouns of Place and Time			10
	DIMINUTIVES		•	10
	GENDER AND NUMBER OF NOUNC			10
	Declension		•	10
	Regular Plurals			10
	Broken Plurals			10
	Numbers, Cardinal and Ordinal .			11
	 Distributives, Multiplicatives, Frac 	ctions	. ·	113
	v. The Personal Pronouns			11
	Declension			11

CONTENTS.	xiii
CHAP. II. (continued)	PAGR
vi. The Demonstrative Pronouns Declension vii. The Relative Pronoun viii. The Cobrelative Pronoun ix. The Interrogative Pronoun x. The Indefinite Pronoun Emphatic Forms Compound Forms xi. The Reflexive Pronoun The Pronomen Reverentiæ. xii. Reciprocal Pronouns.	116
Declension	. 117
VII. THE RELATIVE PRONOUN	119
VIII. THE CORRELATIVE PRONGEN	. 120
IX. THE INTERROGATIVE PRONOUN	120
x. The Indefinite Pronoun	. 122
Emphatic Forms	122
Compound Forms	. 123
XI. THE REFLEXIVE PRONOUN	124
The Pronomen Reverentia	. 125
XII. RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS	126
XII. RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS	. 126
XIV. PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES	. 126 127
CHAP. III. THE VERB	100
THE INFINITIVE OR GERUND	129
THE NOUN OF AGENCY	. 130
THE IMPERFECT AND PERFECT PARTICIPLES	131
Irregular Participles	. 132
Declension of the Participles	133
THE PAST CONJUNCTIVE PARTICIPLE	. 134
THE INFINITIVE OR GERUND THE NOUN OF AGENCY THE IMPERFECT AND PERFECT PARTICIPLES Irregular Participles Declension of the Participles THE PAST CONJUNCTIVE PARTICIPLE THE IMPERATIVE	135
THE PRECATIVE	. 136
The Simple Tenses	139
THE IMPERATIVE THE PRECATIVE THE SIMPLE TENSES The Aorist The Past Indefinite The Past Conditional	. 136 139 . 139 141 . 142 . 142 . 143 . 144 . 145 . 145 . 146 . 150 . 150
The Past Indefinite	141
The Past Conditional	. 142
THE COMPOUND TENSES	142
The Future	. 142
The Future	143
The Present Imperfect	. 144
The Present Perfect	144
The Past Perfect	. 145
The Past Potential	145
CONFIGATION OF THE ACTIVE VOICE	. 146
The Verb Likhnā, 'to write'	147
The Verb Chalna, 'to go'.	. 150
The Present Perfect The Past Perfect The Past Potential Conjugation of the Active Voice The Verb Likhnā, 'to write'. The Verb Chalnā, 'to go'. The Verb Honā, 'to be'.	153
Additional Tenses	156
Additional Tenses	157
CONJUGATION OF THE PASSIVE VOICE	. 161
DERIVATIVE VERBS	161
I. CAUSAL VERBS	167
II. DENOMINATIVE VERBS	160
III. COMPOUND VERBS AND FORMS	161 . 167 169 . 169
Nominals	. 109
Intensives .,	170 171
Potentials	. 171
Completives Continuatives and Staticals Frequentatives Desideratives	172
Continuatives and Staticals	. 173
Frequentatives	175
Desideratives	. 176

Derivative Verbs (continued)	PAGI
Transitives formed with a Conj. Part	177
Inceptives, Permissives, Acquisitives	178
Desideratives, Reiteratives	179
CHAP. IV. PARTICLES	
	181
Original Hindī Adverbs	181
• Nouns in the Locative or Ablative Case .	182
Duenominal Adverba	183
• Compound Adverbs	187
	188
Arabic Adverbs	189
II. Prepositions and Postpositions	191
Genuine Postpositions governing the Formative	
Postpositions which govern the Genitive or	100
the Formative	193
Postpositions, originally Hindī Nouns (masc.)	194
Postpositions, originally Persian Nouns .	195
	196
Persian and Arabic Prepositions	199
HI. Conjunctions	200
IV. Interjections	201
CHAP. V. Derivation of Words	203
	203
	208
	216
IV. Compounds	218
SYNTAX.	
CHAP. VI. I. THE PARTS OF A SENTENCE	223
II. THE ORDER OF THE WORDS IN A SENTENCE.	228
III. CONCORD OF THE SUBJECT AND PREDICATE .	236
CHAP, VII. a. THE ABSENCE OF THE ARTICLE	244
b. The Relation of Substantives in a Sentence	245
I. THE NOMINATIVE	246
II. THE AGENT'	240
m - 0	250
IV. THE DATIVE	260
m	264
V. THE ACCUSATIVE	268
Double	268
Factitive	
m	269
m T	272
VII. THE LOCATIVE	281
	2 89
CHAP. VIII. ADJECTIVES •	
I. ATTRIBUTIVE,	290
II. NUMERAL	294
CHAP. IX. PRONOUNS	
I. PERSONAL	298

CONTENTS.	XV

CHAP. IX. Pronouns (continued)	PAGE
TI DEMONSTRATIVE	302
III. RELATIVE .•	305
1. The Conjunctive Sentence	305
11. RELATIVE . 1. The Conjunctive Sentence 2. The Qualificative Sentence .	311
IV. INTERROGATIVE	313
IV. INTERROGATIVE	317
• vi. Reflexive	320
	•
CHAP. X. THE VERB (ACTIVE VOICE)	904
VERBAL NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES	324
I. THE INFINITIVE	924
II. THE NOUN OF AGENCY	329
	331
IMPERFECT AND PERFECT	
PAST CONJUNCTIVE	
TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE MOOD	343
m 7	343
II. THE INDEFINITE FUTURE	348
III. THE PRESENT	319
IV. THE PAST IMPERFECT	
v. The Past Indefinite	353
VI. THE PRESENT PERFECT	355
VII. THE PAST PERFECT	356
THE IMPERATIVE AND PRECATIVE	35 7
II. THE INDEFINITE FUTURE. III. THE PRESENT IV. THE PAST IMPERFECT V. THE PAST INDEFINITE. VI. THE PRESENT PERFECT VII. THE PAST PERFECT THE IMPERATIVE AND PRECATIVE TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD THE PAST PARTY	361
I. THE AGRIST	361
11. THE PRESENT POTENTIAL	366
III. THE PAST POTENTIAL IV. THE PAST CONDITIONAL THE PASSIVE VOICE CAUSAL VERBS.	367
IV. THE PAST CONDITIONAL	368
The Passive Voice	371
Causal Verbs	373
COMPOUND VERBS	373
Intensives, Potentials, Completives, Continu-	
ATIVES	374
Frequentatives, Desideratives	375
Transitives formed with Conjunctive Par-	
TICIPLES	376
Phrases	376
Inceptives, Permissives, etc	377
Nominals	378
CHAD VI DARMEN DA	
Anyrone	381
Preparations and Postpositions	383
Contractions	386
Adverbs Prepositions and Postpositions Conjunctions Coordinate Combination Subordinate Combination	386
STRADDINATE COMBINATION	300
OUDDINATE OURDINATION	000
CHAP. XII. THE DIRECT ORATION	395
THE MOHAMMADAN CALENDAR	396
THE HINDÜ CALFNDAR	398

HINDŪSTĀNĪ GRAMMAR.

PART I.-ORTHOGRAPHY.

CHAPTER I.

I. THE ALPHABET.

1. Urdū, or Hindūstānī, though a composite language, is derived mainly from the Hindī. The Persian and Arabic languages have contributed largely, but Hindī is the chief source. Like Persian and Arabic it is written and read from right to left, and books written in it begin at the page which, in an English book, would be the last. The letters (حُرُفُ الشَّجْي hurūfu 'ttuhujjīi) are thirty-five in number, and are all consonants, though three of them are also used as vowels. When grouped into words, they are (with nine exceptions) connected with one another, and several of the letters assume somewhat different shapes according as they stand at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end of a connected group. The following Table exhibits the several forms of the letters, along with their names and numerical values.

		Uncon-	Conr	Connected Form:			Exemplification of			
Name.	Power.	nected Form.	Final.	Medial.	Initial.	Final.	Medial	Initial.	value.	
ظا alif		1	ľ	l	1	تَا	بار	آب	1	
<i>be</i> بے	ъ	ب	ب	÷	ڊ ,⁄	جُب	خَبَر	بَد	2	
ي pe	p	پ	ِ پ	\$	ړ ټ⁄	تَپ	سِپَر	پَس	$[2]^{2}$	
te تے	t	ت	ت	ت	ا تہ تر	مُت	لتخرد	تب	400	
te,or) قال الله الله الله الله الله الله الله	ţ	اٿ	ٿ	" .	اڙ ٿر	<u></u> هٔت	م َلَّار	ٿيپ	[400]	
e ثے	s:	ث	ث	۵	ژ مر	جُحث	کثر	ثنا	500	
jīm جبم	j	で	€.	ë	7	لمج	فبجر	جب	3	
=> che	ch	₹	پ	Ê	چ	سپ	بهجز	چُپ	[3]	
ے he	ķ	τ	ح	.5	~	صابح	بخث	حرف	8	
خے <u>kh</u> e	<u>kh</u>	خ	ڗ	غد	خ	ماخ	بخش	خال	600	
ا dāl دال	d	د	۵	د	د	بد	فِدا	دست	4	
da ٿه	d.	ڐ	ڐ	ڐ	ڐ	مُنڌ	نِڐر	<i>ڐ</i> ال	[1]	
المي ذال	<u>z</u>	ن	ذ	ذ	ن	كاغذ	نذر	ذات	700	
re ري	r	ار	ر	ر	ر	جر	برق	راد	200	
ra ڙه	r	ڙ	ا ڙ	ا ڙ	اڙ	جڙ	بڙا	ڙوڙا	[200]	
عو زي	z	ز	ا ز	j	ز	گز	بزم	زر	7	
zhe ژي	zh	ژ	اژ	اژ	ا ژ	بُژ	مُثوده	ژر ف	[7]	
ه ₹۶ سین	8	اس	ا س		س	بس	نسب	سر	60	
shīn شبن	вħ	ا ش	اش	ش	ش	فش	حشر	شب	300	

¹ Instead of , , , etc., the forms , b, etc., are commonly used in books printed and lithographed in India. The form is peculiar to books printed in England.

² The bratkets are intended to show that these letters had originally no value, but afterwards received the same value as the cognate Arabic letters

	Power.	Uncon-						n of	Numeri-
Name.	Power.			Medial.	Initial.	Final.	Medial.	Initial.	Value.
بقة صاد	ş	ص	ص	ص	ص	خلص	قصب	صاف	90
يقط بقاد	٠ ۽	ض	ض	فہ	ض	بعض	حضر	ضبر	800
100 طوي	<u>t</u> .	ط	ط	ㅂ	ط	خط	خطا	طاق	9
zoe ظوي	z	ظ	ظ	ظ	ظ	حفظ	نظر	ظفر	900
ain' عين	ʻa	ع	ح		ء	صنع	بعد	عسل	70
gain غين	g	غ	ف	ż	غ	تيغ	بغل	غسل	1000
fe فے	f	ف	نف	i.	ۏ	سلف	سفر	فرح	80
kāf قاف	ķ	ق	تى	ä	ۊ	طبق	نقل	قمر	100
لاف kāf	k	ک	ک	٤	ک	نیک	بكر	کام	20
<i>gāf</i> گاف	g	کت ا	کت	٤	\$	الگت	مگس	گل	[20]
الآم لأم lām	l	ل	ل	7	\$	حمل	طلب	لعل	30
ייבא mīm	71k	م	۴	45	~	قلم	اقر) اقمرا	مال	40
กลิก نُون	n	ن	ن	ند	ا ذ نر	من	منع	نعل	50
wā'o واو	w	و	و	و	و	بو	ا پور	وحل	6
ه he	h	٥	امنه	₹ŧ	۵	نه	(کیا) (کہا)	هنر	5
ye یے	y	ی	(ي) الے ا	#	,2 <u>,</u> 2	(بي) ابے!	بید	يا <i>د</i>	10

Rem. a. The form \angle is used for the letters b, p, t, \underline{t} , \underline{s} , n, y, before \underline{t} , \underline{t} ,

Rem. b. I in connection with a preceding of forms the figures I, I. This combination is generally reckoned a letter of the alphabet, and inserted before c, to the perplexity of many grammarians, who, ignorant of the reason why it is placed there, erroneously call it lām-

alif, whereas it is nothing else than the name of the alif of prolongation (see § 11, Rem. c.) written at full length. It must not be confounded with the consonant \ (or the hamzated alif, or hamza, as it is commonly called), the first letter of the alphabet.

2. To the above letters should be added the aspirated letters of the Devanāgarī, or Alphabet of the Sanskrit, viz. ¥ bha, 耳 pha, 耳 tha, 耳 tha, 耳 jha, 蚕 chha, घ dha, dha, 펍 kha, घ gha. The aspirate in these letters is said to be 如此 makhlū!, or 'blended' (with the preceding letter). They are represented in Urdū by the combinations 我,我,我,我, the 'butterflyor spectacle-shaped' h (du-chashmī he) being conventionally used with all except 2 and 3, which letters are not (except, optionally, in the case of a final h, see Rem. a, § 3) connected with a following letter, and therefore take the initial form of the h after them.

never in those derived from the Arabic. ٿ, ٿ, ۽, and the ten aspirated letters پ , به , etc., can occur in Hindī words alone. The remaining letters are common to Hindī, Persian, and Arabic words.

a preceding letter, provided it be not one of their own number, but not generally to a following one. The letters L and L are connected with both a preceding and a following letter, but their form remains unchanged.

Rem. The above rule is strictly true only of the printed character. In writing and in lithographed books these letters, with the exception of l, are frequently joined to a following h, if it be final: e.g. l^2 $d\bar{l}du$.

4. The correct pronunciation of some of the letters, as, for example, τ and ξ , it is scarcely possible for a European to acquire. Most of them, however, are sufficiently represented by the corresponding English characters, as may be seen from the following remarks:

I alif, or hamza (as it is commonly called, to distinguish it from the alif of prolongation), is the spiritus lenis of the Greeks. It may be compared with h in the English hour.

- \longrightarrow and \longrightarrow are our b and p.
- is much softer and more dental than the English t. In pronouncing it, the tip of the tongue should be placed against the edge or the back of the upper teeth.
- than a heavier sound than our t, but it represents it more closely than \longrightarrow does. In pronouncing it the tip of the tongue is applied to the back part of the mouth,

¹ This t is termed تَأْتُ مُ ثُقَدِّلَهُ tā'č mugak kalu ' the heavy t,' and the same epithet is applied to the letters \$\bar{z}\$ and \$\bar{z}\$.

- are all sounded alike, like our hard s in sit.1 ص, س, ف
- τ has the sound of j in the English jail.
- is the English ch, as in church.
- is a very sharp, but smooth guttural aspirate, stronger than s, but not rough like \dot{z} . Its sound approximates to that of our h in huge.
 - ن is softer and more dental than our d. It is pronounced in the same way as our ت, by placing the tongue against the back of the upper teeth.
 - $\ddot{\mathcal{S}}$ has a sound resembling the English d in dame; but it is generally heavier. It is pronounced by applying the tip of the tongue to the back part of the roof of the mouth.
- غ and ظ have all one sound in Urdū, viz. that of our z in zėal.
- is, in all positions, a distinctly uttered lingual r, as pronounced by the French and Germans.
- " is a heavy sounding r, uttered by turning the tip of the tongue towards the roof of the mouth, as in the case of \ddot{S} , with which letter it is interchangeable.
 - f has the sound of our z in azure.
 - is represented by our sh, as in shut.
- b is a strongly palatal t; but by all except, perhaps, the educated Musalman, it is pronounced like \Box .
- E has a strong guttural sound, pronounced by a smart compression of the upper part of the wind-pipe, and forcible emission of the breath. Its correct pronunciation is rarely heard in India, and is scarcely to be acquired by a European.
 - is a guttural g, accompanied by a grating or rattling sound as in

is pronounced like our th in thing; س like s in sit; م somewhat like ss in hiss; أن like th in this; j as the common English z; ف like a strongly articulated palatal d, and b, either like ف, or as a strongly articulated palatal z.

gargling, of which English affords no example. The Northumbrian r, and the French r in grasseye, are approximations to it.

is our f.

is a strongly articulated guttural k, of which we have no example in English. It closely resembles the sound uttered by a crow in its caw.

is our k.

has the sound of our g in get, give; never that of g in gem, gaol, gibe.

J, are exactly equivalent to the English l, m.

لامه three distinct sounds: it has the sound of the English n in not—1) When it occurs at the beginning of a word or syllable, as أَوْمَ عَلَى الله وَ الله وَالله وَ الله وَالله وَ الله وَا الله وَالله وَا

¹ There are numerous exceptions to the rule in the case of Hindī words; a good test, perhaps, is the method of writing if a word can be written with either n or m (before b or p), the n invariably has the sound of m. e.g. المنا المسلمة المسلمة المسلمة والمسلمة وا

champā, $\lim_{n \to \infty} lambā$.—In these pages nasal n, when final, will be printed without the dot, thus u; and in the Roman character it will, in all positions, be indicated by n with a dot (n).

Rem. a. Final h can only be silent when it is not an original letter. It is found chiefly in Persian and Arabic words, in the latter of which it is a servile letter forming (originally) feminine nouns: e.g. which malika, 'queen,' from he Arabic fem. malika, 'king;' muhāwara, 'idiom,' from the Arabic fem. muhāwarat: in the former it is used simply to convey the sound of the preceding short vowel (fatha).

Rem. b. Of the medial forms of h, ϵ is conventionally used to aspirate the letters ι , ι , ι , ι , ι , etc., as has been shown in § 2, the form ι being employed when it is to be pronounced as a separate letter; but this distinction is not generally regarded in India.

The aspirated letters $\rightleftharpoons bh$, $\rightleftharpoons ph$, etc., are uttered with a greater effort of breath than usual, and by one action of the vocal organ; there is no pause between the b, p, etc., and the h. The only one of these

letters which has an English equivalent is z, which is sounded like th in our thick. The sounds of ph, th, etc., are said by grammarians to resemble those of the same combinations in our words, up-hill, hot-house, etc.; but this is scarcely correct.

II. THE VOWELS AND OTHER ORTHOGRAPHIC SIGNS.

- 5. The following signs are used to indicate the short vowels:
- 1) (called آَيُر fullya, or آَيُر zabar). It is written above the consonant after which it is sounded, and is invariably pronounced like our a in cedar, or our a in bun: e.g. بَن ban, 'a forest.'
- 2) (called کَسُرَه kasra, or زير zer). It is written beneath the consonant after which it is pronounced, and has the sound of our *i* in pin: e.g. ني bin, 'without.'
- 3) $\stackrel{\checkmark}{-}$ (called نیش gamma, or پیش pesh). It is written over the consonant to which it belongs, and has the sound of u in pull: e.g. i i i i i bridge.'
- Rem. a. The short vowels kasra and zamma, when immediately followed by a, or by the harsh gutturals _ and z, are generally pronounced like obscure e and o respectively; as ين yèh, 'this,' ين wòh, 'that,' ين měḥnat, 'toil,' 'trouble,' عَضَد Mòhammad, فِعَل hat,' 'action.' So also zamma preceded by the guttural k (ق) has the sound of b; as مُرَاّل kör'ān.
- Rem. b. The three short vowels are collectively termed حَرَكات harakāt, 'motions;' and the letter which is accompanied by one of them is said to be مُتَحَرِّك mutaharrik, or 'movent.'

¹ Fatha, hasra, zamma, are the Arabic names for the short vowels; zabar, zer, pesh, the Persian: both are commonly used by the native grammarians.

TANWIN. '

- 6. The marks of the short vowels when doubled are pronounced with the addition of the sound n, as an, in, un. This is called نفية tanwīn, or 'nūnation' (from the name of the letter nūn), and takes place only at the end of an Arabic word: e.g. فقل fauran, 'instantly,' maṣalan, 'for example,' فقل daf'alan, 'all at once,' mushārun ilaih, 'the aforesaid.' The tanwīn of fatha (-) takes an lafter all the consonants except i; but the tanwīn should always be written over the letter preceding the alif, and not over the alif itself. This alif in no way affects the quantity of the vowel, which is always short.
- Rem. a. If a woul end in \, the tanuin with hamza (§ 13) is written after it; e.g. النداء hibida'an, 'firstly,' 'originally.'
- Rem. b. The tanwin of zamma rarely occurs in Urdū; that of kasra perhaps never.

JAZM OR SURUN.

7. When a consonant is not accompanied by one of the three short vowels fatha, kasra, and zamma, that is to say, when it occurs at the end of a shut syllable (and is therefore not سَعَرَنُ mutaharrik, or 'movent'), it is termed مَعْرَنُ majzūm, 'amputated,' or 'with sakin, 'resting' or 'quiescent,' and is then marked with the orthographic sign —, called مَعْرَبُ jazm, 'amputation,' or 'sukūn, 'rest,' which serves, when another syllable follows, to separate the two, e.g. مَارِنَا marnū, 'to beat,' شَعِيد 'masjid, 'a mosque.'

¹ The word quiescent is to be understood in its original signification of not moving, and not in the secondary sense of 'not sounded,' that it has in English grammar,

- Rem. a. When two or more quiescent letters occur together in a word, the first alone is termed سَاكِنَ sākin, and the others are termed مَوْقُوفُ mankūf, 'supported,' or 'dependent on;' e.g. in the word course of triend,' the jest termed sākin, but the wand are said to be mankūf.
- Rem. b. The jazm is not written over the last letter of a word, although that letter is, in all but a very few cases, quiescent.
- Rem. o. A few words begin with two consonants, the first having no vowel; e.g. کیا kyā, 'what,' کیوں kyōi, 'why,' کیا brāhman, 'a Brāhman.' It is not customary to write juzm over the first letter in these words, since a quies ent consonant is not supposed to occur at the beginning of a word. When the second of the two letters is r, the first is not unfrequently pronounced with kasra, e.g birāhman. Sometimes the r is clided, as in

TASHDID.

- 8. A consonant that is to be doubled, or 'strengthened,'
 (مُشَدُّهُ mushaddad) is written only once, but marked with
 the -, called تَشَدِيد tashdīd, 'strengthening,' e.g. الله kuwwat (not
 kūwat), 'power.' The first of the double letters ends the
 preceding syllable, and the second begins the following,
 as tasar-ruf; and each of them must be distinctly pronounced, and not slurred over as the double letters are
 in the English words manner, mummy.
- Rom. The tashdīd is not generally used in the case of infinitives, the roots of which end in نَا وَالْمُ بَالْنَا بَالْمُ jānnā, 'to know,' سُنّا sunnā, 'to hear,' not الله حالًا and الله عالم الله على الله عل

LONG YOWELS AND DIPHTHONGS.

9. The long vowels $(\bar{u}, \bar{\imath}, \bar{u})$ are indicated by placing the marks of the short vowels before the corresponding

- 11. The short vowel fatha before عن and , forms the diphthongs ai and au, as exemplified in the English aisle, and the German haus, (or in the English house): e.g. haif, 'pity,' حَوْف hauz, 'reservoir.'
- Rem. a. 1, and على, when they form vowels, are termed letters of prolongation (حُرُفُ الْمَدّ hurāfu'l madd), because they have the effect of lengthening the preceding short vowels; and حُرُفُ الْمَثَاء hurāfu الْمَاهُ hurāfu الْمَاهُ أَنْهُ الْمُعَامِينَ أَنْهُ الْمُعَامِينَ الْمُعَامِينَ أَنْهُ الْمُعَامِعِينَ أَنْهُ الْمُعَامِعِينَ أَنْهُ الْمُعَامِعُ الْمُعُمِعُ الْمُعْمِعُ الْمُعَامِعُ الْمُعَامِعُ الْمُعَامِعُ الْمُعْمِعُ الْمُعُمِعُ الْمُعْمِعُ الْمُعْمِعُ الْمُعْمِعُ الْمُعْمِعُ الْمُعِلِيعُ الْمُعُمِعُ الْمُعُمِعُ الْمُعُمِعُ الْمُعُمِعُ الْمُعُمِعُ الْمُعْمِعُ الْمُعْمِعُ الْمُعْمِعُ الْمُعْمِعُ الْمُعْمِعُ الْمُعْمِعُ الْمُعْمِعُ الْمُعُمِعُ الْمُعُمِ

Rem. b. The letters of prolongation, though they are qui seent, are

not generally marked with jazm; but in certain works printed in England, g and g, when they have the $majh\bar{u}l$ sound, are marked with that sign—or rather with a complete circle, thus $\hat{j} \in ka$, $\hat{j} \in tel$; and when they form diphthongs (in which case they might be marked with jazm), with the sign $\hat{j} : g \in g$. $\hat{j} : aur$, $\hat{j} : a$

Rem. c. The alif of prolongation is, by some grammarians, regarded as a letter of the alphabet, and named $l\bar{l}a$, the $l\bar{l}$ with fatha being prefixed to it because it cannot be pronounced at the beginning of its own name, as every other letter can (see § 1, Rem. b).

12. The alif of prolongation is omitted in some Arabic words, but the omission is indicated by the preceding fatha being written perpendicularly: e.g. (for (for בבווה) hāzā, 'that.' The perpendicular fatha represents a small alif.

Rem. a. In a few Arabic words the perpendicular fatha is followed by or و; in such cases these letters are sounded like the alif of prolongation; e.g. صَلُودٌ; salāt, 'prayer,' اَولْيَتُر (or اُولْيَتُر) aulātar, 'better.'

Rem. b. ي at the end of a word after fatha is pronounced like \, which is generally written over it, e.g. ي مُعْرَى or كَعْرَى da'wā, 'claim,' elaim,' ukbā, 'the next world.' This ي is termed المُفْ الْمُغْمُورِد alifu'l maḥṣāra, 'the abbreviated alif,' in contradistinction to 'the lengthened alif' (\\$ 17). It is so named because, when it comes in contact with 'the conjunctive alif' (الفُ الْوَعَلَى alifu'l waṣl, \\$ 15), it is shortened in pronunciation before the following consonant. The Persians generally change this ي into \.

THE HAMZATED ALIF, OR HAMZA.

13. Alif, when it is not a mere letter of prolongation, but a consonant, pronounced like the spiritus lenis, is distinguished by the mark - hamza (said), either expressed or implied, and is commonly called hamza. When it

Rem. a. According to Arabic grammarians, a syllable cannot begin with a vowel; but every vowel must be preceded by a symbol indicating the movement of the vocal organ whereby the emission of the breath is produced. Now, in uttering what we regard as an initial vowel, there takes place (in the fauces), according to this theory, a sudden emission of the voice after a total suppression; and this is represented by the symbol or in hamza, which signifies prick, impulse. This effort of utterance (which, not being a vowel, comes to be ranked as a consonant) the Greeks represented by the mark ('). In the pronunciation of an Arab the hamza is a very perceptible articulation, especially at the commencement of a syllable in the middle of a word, preceding a shut syllable; e.g. kör'ān, if jur'at (not kö-rān, and ju-rat).

- 14. When humza occurs at the beginning of a syllable not the first in a word, the following eases arise:
- 1). If it be pronounced with futha, it generally appears in the form of alif with hamza: e.g مُواَّد sū'ar, 'pig,' جُرَاَّت 'sū'at, 'daring,' مُواً tau'am, 'twin.'
- 2). If it be accompanied by zamma, and preceded by one of the letters of prolongation, it generally takes the form of hamza alone ($\dot{-}$): e.g. $j\bar{u}$, $j\bar{u}$, $i\bar{u}$, shall, or should, I go? $j\bar{u}$, 'foot,' foot,' \bar{u} ins \bar{u} 'on, 'tears,' $j\bar{v}$ ' \bar{u} n, '(if) I live.' If it be moved by kasra, and followed by the majhūl \underline{c} —, hamza alone may be written,

- or ن may be used, but the former is the more common : e.g. پائے or پائے $p\bar{a}'e$, 'foot,' مُوئے or پائے $h\bar{u}'e$, 'been.'
- 3). If it is pronounced with kąsra, and preceded by a letter of prolongation, or by fatha, it generally passes into $\dot{\omega}$ (in which ease it is correct to omit the two points of the letter عَدَائِي: e.g. غَائِدُهُ judā'ī, 'separation,' غَائِدُهُ fū'ida, 'advantage,' عَدَائِي gunjū'ish, 'capacity,' 'room,' مُونِي $h\bar{u}$ 'ī, 'been, كَرِي ko'ī, 'some,' كَرِي ku'ī, 'several.'
- Rem. a. I sometimes passes into أَ: e.g. مُوتَنَّ mu'annas, 'feminine,' المَّارِّقِين mu'annas, 'feminine,' المَّارِّقِين المِعْمَة المُعْمَة المُعْمَاعِ المُعْمَة المُعْمَاعِ المُعْمَة المُعْمَاعِ المُعْمَاعِ المُعْمَة المُعْمَاعِ المُعْمَاعِ المُعْمَاعِ المُعْمَاعِ المُعْمَاعِ المُعْمَاعِ المُعْمَاعِ المُعْمَاعِ المُعْمَاعِ المُعْمَعِمِعُمَاعِ المُعْمَاعِ المُعْمَاعِ المُعْمَاعِ المُعْمَاعِ المُعْمِعِمِعُمَاعِ المُعْمَاعِمِعُمَاعِ المُعْمَاعِمُ المُعْمَاعِ المُعْمِعُ المُعْمَاعِ المُعْمَاعِ المُعْمَاعِ المُعْمِعِ المُعْمَاعِ
- Rem. b. Hamza is often found at the end of a syllable in Arabic words: e.g. مُوْمَن , تَأْشُر . In such eases the hamza is changed (in Urdā) into the letter of prolongation corresponding to the preceding short vowel: e.g. مُوْمِن tāṣār, 'effect,' مُوْمِن māmin, 'believer.'
- Rem. c. The letters \, , and \(\sigma\) are termed حُرُوف عِلَت hurvfe 'illat, 'weak letters,' on account of the changes to which they are subject among themselves.
- Rem. d. Hamza, as its character indicates, is the abbreviation of ξ , which is in fact but an aggravation of the spiritus lenis. This may guide the student to some extent in pronouncing the ξ ; but as we have observed before, it is almost impossible for an Englishman to acquire the true pronunciation of this letter; and it is quite impossible to explain the true sound in writing: it must be learned by the ear alone. A Hindū makes scarcely any distinction between the sounds

when we have occasion to write Hindūstānī in the Roman character, hamza in the middle of a word will be represented by the Greek symbol ('), and e by that symbol inverted: e.g. pā'on (اعَلَم), 'alam (اعَلَم). Hamza at the beginning of a word will be omitted.

WASL.

15. The mark (=), called بَشْل wast, 'union,' occurs in Urdū only over the consonant I of the Arabic article ال in phrases from the Arabic, e.g. أَمْوُوسَنِين amīru 'l mūminīn, 'Commander of the Faithful,' الشراف آلاشراف ashrafu 'l ashraf, 'the noblest of the noble,' بِآكُلُ bi'lkull (pronounced bil-kull), 'in the totality,' 'completely.' ·In such phrases the 1 at the commencement of the article is absorbed by the final vowel of the preceding word and the mark = written over the alif indicates the clision of the spiritus lenis. The, and of prolongation, as also 'the abbreviated alif' (alife maksūra, 5 or 15-, § 12, Rem. b.), are shortened in pronunciation before an alif with wasl: e.g. فِي آ لَفُور fi 'l faur, 'on the instant,' 'instantly,' يُو ٱلْيَوْس 'l hawas, 'possessed of desire,' 'desirous,' دَعْوَي ٱلْمُتَأَخِّرِين 'dawa'l muta'akhkhirīn, 'the claim, or assertion, of the moderns.' These words are فِنْتُور invariably pronounced as though they were written filfaur, مُوَسَ bulhawas, دَعُولُمُتاً تَخْرِين da'walmula'akhkhirīn.

Rem. Alif with wast (أ) is altogether omitted in the first word of the introductory formula بِسَمِ الله (for المَّاسِين bismillāh, 'in the name of God,' and also after the Arabic preposition لِعَالَمِين bi, 'to': e.g. الْعَالَمِين bil, 'to': e.g. الْعَالْمِين

Rem. The letters ت, ث, etc., mentioned above, are called حُرُوفُ الْسَمْسَةُ hurūfu 'shshamsīya, or 'the solar letters,' because the word شَمْسَ shams, 'sun,' happens to begin with one of them; and the other letters of the Arabic alphabet are termed الْسَمْسَةُ الْسَمْسَةُ الْسَمْسَةُ الْسَمْسَةُ الْسَمْسِةُ الْسَمْسِةُ الْسَمْسِةُ الْسَمْسِةُ الْسَمْسِةُ الْسَمْسِةُ الْسَمْسِةُ وَمَعْمُ الْسَمْسِةُ وَمَعْمُ اللّٰهُ الللّٰهُ اللّٰهُ اللّٰهُ الللّٰهُ اللّٰهُ اللّٰهُ اللّٰهُ اللّٰهُ اللّٰهُ

MADD.

17. At the beginning of a word or syllable the sound of long $a(\bar{a})$ is represented by the alif of prolongation preceded by the inaudible consonant! The two alifs are commonly represented in writing by one with the sign of prolongation, \cong , madd (∞ i.e. lengthening, extension), placed over it: e.g. $= \bar{1} \bar{a}j$, 'to-day' (for $= \bar{1} \bar{b}$), 'water,' $= \bar{1} \bar{a}i$, 'and the beginning of a syllable.

Rem. T is called الف مَمَدُّود alife mamdāda, 'the lengthened alif.' in contradistinction to 'the abbreviated or short alif' (الجَفِ مَغْضُورَ عَلَى مُعْفُورَ عَلَى اللهُ ال

18. The attainment of a correct pronunciation will be materially facilitated by a strict attention to the rule for

dividing a word correctly into syllables. Every syllable begins with a movable consonant, and every word has just as many syllables as it has vowels. Hence a syllable consists of a consonant and a vowel, or a consonant, a vowel, and any following quiescent consonants: e.g. مركب bhū-khā, 'hungry.' أمركب ha-ra-hat, 'motion,' درخت ha-ra-hat, 'motion,' درخت ta-bas-sum, 'smile.'

Rem. The short vowels, and other orthographical signs, are rarely to be met with in MSS, and books printed in India, and the point of the final \boldsymbol{z} are frequently dispensed with. However necessary then the aid of the orthographical marks may be to a European student, he should not fail to accustom himself to their omission. In these pages an attempt has been made to mark all the most necessary signs. The short vowel fatha is generally omitted, as also the kasra and zemma when they help to form the majhāl sounds e and o. When the majhāl sound e occurs at the end of a word it is written \boldsymbol{z} , with 'the reversed ye' (ye' ya'è ya

19. The letters of the alphabet are also used for the purpose of numerical computation—chiefly, if not exclusively, in recording the date of important events: e.g. pādshāhē shư arā bād ahlī, 'Ahlī was the king of poets,' wherein the sum of the letters ب المن , etc., amounts to 942 (A.H.), the date of the death of the poet Ahlī; بنار به bāg o bahār, where the sum of the numerical values of the letters ب المن , المن , etc., amounts to 1217 A.H., the year in which the work called the Bāg o bahār was completed. The arrangement of the letters of

¹ The ya' i ma' k not, or 'reversed ye,' can only be employed, in the Arabic character, when connected with a preceding letter.

the alphabet according to their numerical values is called the *abjud*, and is contained in the following eight unmeaning words:

ابْجد هوز حُطِى كَلمَّن صَعْنَف قُرِشت شَخْد. ضطُخ The value of each letter will be found in the Table of the Alphabet.

20. The special numerical figures are

which are compounded in exactly the same way as our numerals: c.g. NNT 1873.

21. The following passage, with the transcript in English letters, will serve as a useful exercise in reading for the student, and also to exemplify the most important of the remarks in the preceding paragraphs.

سِنْدُباد جہازی کا یہُلا سفر *

سنڈباد نے کہا۔ میں نے جو دَوْلت آور جائداد آپنے باپ کے ترکے سے بائیں تبی عالم شباب میں عَبّاشِی کرکے سب خرْج کر ڈالی۔ اور پھر آپنی حمافت آور نادانبی پر مُطّلع دوکر کمال نادم آور پشیمان مُوا۔ آور اُس دَوّلتِ کشِیر آور مال و اسباب کے ضائع کرنیکا بہتت افسوس کیا۔ دانیشمندوں کا یہ قول کے ''مُنظِسی سے مرّجانا بہتر مَی'' یاد کرتا اور اُسکو آپنے حسب حال پانا۔ اور مبری باپ کا بیبی یہی قول تبا * آخر الاَمْر مِیراث کا بچا بچایا جو آمیری فَنُول خرْجِموں سے باقی رہ گیا تبا سب جمع کرکے بیجا۔ آور تاجران بخری سے اپنے باب میں مشورد کیا۔ اُنہوں نے مُجہٰکو آجِہی صالح بتالؤی ۔ مَیْن نے اُس رُوپی کو رُجارت کِیا۔ اُنہوں نے مُجہٰکو آجِہی صالح بتالؤی ۔ مَیْن نے اُس رُوپی کو رُجارت

میں لگادِیَا۔ آؤر تِجارت کا اسْباب خرِید کر اُن تاجِروں کے ہمْراہ بنّدر بائسْرا کو گیا۔ آؤر وہاں سے۔ بَاتِّناق اُن سَبکے۔ جہاز کِرایَه کرّکے سوار هُوا *

Sindbād jahāzī-kā pahlā safar.

Sindbūd-ne kahū, main-ne jo daulat aur jā'edād apne būp-ke tarike-se pā'ī thī, 'ālamë shabūb-men 'aiyūshī-karke sab kharch kar dūlī, aur phir apnī ḥamūkat aur nā-dūnī-par muṭṭali'-hokar kamūl nūdim aur pashemūn hū'ā, aur us daulatë kaṣīr aur māl o asbūb-ke zā'ë karne-kū bahut afsos kiyā; dānishmandon-kū yëh ḥaul ki "muflisī-se mar-jūnū běhtar hai" yād-kartā, aur usho apne ḥasbē ḥāl pātā, aur mere būp-kā bhī yëhī ḥaul thā. Ākhiru 'lamr mīrāṣ-kū bachā bachāyā jo merī fazūl-kharchiyon-se būķī rah-quyū thū, sab jam'-harke bechū, aur tājirānĕ baḥrī-se apne būb-men mashwara kiyā; unhon-ne muh-ho achchhī ṣalūḥ batlū'ī; main-ne us rūpai-ko tijūrat-men lagū-diyā, aur tijūra'-kū asbūb kharīd-kar, un tājiron-ke ham-rāh bandar būnsrā-ko gayū, aur wahūn-se, bu-ittifūķ un sab-ke, jahūz kirāya-kar-ke sawūr hū'ā.

TRANSLATION.

Sindbad the Sailor's First Voyage.

Sindbad said: Whatever wealth and property I inherited from my father's estate, I spent all in debauchery in the season of youth; and then, perceiving my folly and stupidity, became extremely ashamed and sorry, and much regretted having squandered that vast wealth and property; I used to call to mind the saying of the wise, 'Death is better than poverty,' and to find it in accordance with my predicament; this saying moreover was my father's also. Ultimately, collecting all the remnants of my inheritance, which had escaped my extravagances, I sold (them), and consulted some merchants (lit. seatraders) respecting myself; they gave me good counsel: I invested that money in commerce, and purchasing trading commodities, accompanied those merchants to the sea-port of Baṣrā, and thence, conjointly with them all, hired a ship, and embarked.

PART II.-ETYMOLOGY.

CHAPTER II.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

- 22. Urdū grammarians, using the grammatical terminology of the Arabic, class all the parts of speech under the three general heads of Verbs (من أيض fe'l), Nouns (من أيض أنعل بعطرف fe'l). Under the verb they class what we call the Conjunctive Participle (منعطرف fe'lè mat tāt). The Noun includes—
- 1°. The Substantive (اِسَّم مَوْصُوف isme mausuf, or simply ism, 'the noun which is described or qualified').
- 2º The Adjective (المَّمِ عِنْت isme sifat, 'the noun indicating a quality').
- 3°. The Numerical Adjective (المُعْمُ عدد isme 'adad, 'the noun of number').
- 4°. The Personal Pronoun (منجسة بي عسس , 'the noun that is kept in mind').
- 5°. The Demonstrative Pronoun (المَّم إِشَارِة ismě ishāra, 'the noun of indication, or by which something is pointed out').
- 60. The Relative Pronoun [السّم مَوصُول isme mausūl, 'the noun that is connected' (with a relative clause)].

- 7°. The Interrogative Pronoun (اَسَمِ إِسْتِغُهَام ismë istifham, the noun that seeks information,' or 'the noun of questioning').
- . 80. The Indefinite Pronoun (اَسَمِ مُنْبَامِ isme mubham, 'the indeterminate or indefinite noun').
- 9° The Infinitive, or Verbal Noun ("masdar," the source whence the different forms of the verb originate").
- 10°. The Deverbal Nouns, as the Noun of Agency (السّم فاعِل isme fā il), the Perfect, or Passive Participle (السّم مَنْعُول or السّم مَنْعُول or السّم مَنْعُول isme māṣī, or isme maf all), and the Imperfect Participle (السّم حالبة isme hāliya, 'the noun of state or circumstance' of the subject or object).

Under the term Particles are comprised—1° Adverbs; 2° Prepositions (حُرُوف جر hurūfe jarr, 'particles of attraction'); 3° Conjunctions (مُرُوف عطف أبولا أب

I. THE ARTICLE.

23. It will be perceived from the above classification that the Article finds no place among the parts of speech in Urdū. The context alone can determine whether a noun is definite or indefinite. The force of the definite article is, however, often conveyed by the demonstrative pronouns at yeh, 'this,' and ', woh, 'that'; and that of the

¹ There is no special name for an adverb in Urdū; it is termed تغيي tamiz, 'the specification,' ظرف عن عمر علاق عمر f, 'the vessel, or that in which the act is done,' or نغيي nafī, 'the particle of negation,' according to the sense in which it is used.

indefinite article by the numeral ایک ek, 'one,' or by the indefinite pronoun کوئی $ko'\bar{\imath}$, 'some.' A fuller notice of this will be found in the Syntax. •

II. THE SUBSTANTIVE (إِسْم).

- 1. Gender (جنّس jins).
- 24. In respect of gender, Urdū nouns are divisible into two classes: 1) those which are masculine (مُدِيِّ muzakkar); 2) those which are feminine (مُدِيِّ mu'annas).
- Rem. Most nouns are masculine or feminine merely by usage ($sama^{i}\bar{\imath}$); the gender of a large number, however, is based on rule ($kiy\bar{a}s\bar{\imath}$): it is with these chiefly that we have to deal
- 25. That a noun is of the musculine or feminine gender may be ascertained either: 1) from its signification; or 2) from its form.
- 26. All common nours and proper names that denote males are masculine by signification, and those that denote females are feminine: e.g. شؤهر bāp, 'father,' غالم shauhar, 'husband,' إحار tohār, 'blacksmith.' موهن Mohan, are masculine; and مان mān, 'mother,' جوري jorū, 'wife,' بثو chhochho, 'nurse,' بثو Banuū, are feminine by signification.

Rem. There is one exception even to this rule. The word فبيله kabīla, 'family,' 'tribe,' is used suphemistically to signify wife, and treated as a masculine; and the masculine terms خاندان khāndān, 'family,' خاندان gharāna, 'household,' گيرانه ghar ke ādmiņān. 'people of the house,' are still more commonly used in the sense of 'wite'

- 27. Masculine by form are:
- 1). Hindī nouns ending in $1 \bar{a}$, as \bar{u} , 'flour,' گئرا $ghar\bar{a}$, 'an earthen vessel,' میرا $h\bar{u}r\bar{a}$, 'diamond.' ا
- Rem. The exceptions (though numerous in the Hindī dialect) are not numerous in Urdū.² The chief exception to the rule is a class of feminine diminutives ending in المنابع المنابع chiriyā, 'a bird.' جواياً phuriyā, 'a small boil,' قبياً dibiyā, 'a tiny hox.'

Rem. Hindī and Arabic words furnish a few exceptions, as فَالُو būdā, 'sand,' وَهُو dārā, 'liquor,' وَهُو rohā, 'a kind of fish,' هُم الله المقارة, 'satire.' and perhaps one or two more. The chief exceptions are Persian words, as ابر المؤلفة abrā, 'eyebrow,' آبر ābrā, 'honour,' أَبَرُو arzā, 'wish,' وَهُ اللهِ اللهُ الله

3). Nouns ending in s = a: e.g. بنّده banda, 'a slave,' parda, 'a curtain,' مِنّده gussa, 'anger,' بِرّده kissa, 'a tale.'

Rem. a. بننس banafsha, 'a violet,' تُوبه 'tuba, 'repentance,' دفّعه dafa, 'time,' 'a class,' مرّعه sarfa, 'expenditure,' فاخسه fākhta, 'a

¹ I use the term *Hindī* advisedly; for Sanskrit, not having been a spoken language when Urdū sprung into existence, could only have furnished words to it through the Hindī.

Words like mansā, dayā, jachā, kirpā, sobhā, etc., belong, not to Uidū, but to Hindī. Such words were commonly used by the older writers, but are rarely found in modern authors, and even the older writers generally used them under peculiar circumstances, just as an English novelist, the scene of whose novel is laid in Cornwall, for example, might introduce something of the Cornish dialect into his work.

- dove,' هن القده, 'a corpse,' and a few more, are exceptions; as are also all such Arabic nouns as have s affixed to the masculine to form the feminine, هالده malika, 'queen,' from مالك malika, 'king,' والده wālida, 'mother,' from والده wālida, 'father.'
- Rem. I Final s (masculine) is frequently changed into \, and vice versa: e.g. أكرا rājā, 'a king;' قراء āgra, for أكرا 'Agra, 'Agra.'
- 4). All nouns terminating in the syllable بن pan: e.g. أوبن pan: e.g. كميتوني kamīnapan, 'meanness,' لوّن kamīnapan, 'meanness,' 'childhood.' Such words are all abstract substantives.
- 5). Arabic verbal nouns of the measure الفعال if al, in which the two alifs (the first and fourth letters) are servile and constant: e.g. إِثْبَال 'eḥsān, 'a kindness,' إِثْبَال 'good fortune,' إِثْبَال 'hsān, 'avowal,' إِثْكَار 'inkār, 'denial.'
- Rem. The few exceptions are إِذْبَارِ 'jlās, 'a sitting,' إِذْبَارِ 'idbār, 'turning back,' الْحَامِ الْجَالِم 'idbār, 'eorrection,' الْحَامِ ikrāh, 'aversion,' الْحَامِ ilhāḥ, 'solicitation,' إِدِلْ imdād, 'assisting,' إِيرِاك 'īrād, 'adducing,' and a few more words that end in t or t or t or t which are common feminine terminations in Arabic nouns.
- 6). Arabic verbal nouns of the measure تَغُمُّ tafu"ul, in which the first letter (ت t) is servile and characteristic, and the third is marked with tashdīd: e.g. تردُّد taraddud, 'vacillation,' تكبُّر takabbur, 'haughtiness.'
- Rem. The exceptions are تُوَثَّرُو 'tawajjuh, 'regard,' تُوخَّرُو 'tawazzū, 'performing ablution before prayer,' تُمنَّا 'tawakku', 'expectation,' تُمنَّا 'tamannā, 'wish,' and all nouns ending in يَسَلِّي tasallī, 'consolation,' تَسَلِّي tarakkī, 'advancement.'
- 7). Arabic verbal nouns of the measure $tafa^cal$, in which the first and third letters are servile and constant:

e.g. تفارُت tadāruk, 'calling to account,' تفارُت tafāwut, 'difference.'

Rem. توافُّت tawāzu', 'civility,' is an exception; so also are all nouns ending in ج ع , as تحاشي taḥāshī, 'exception.'

- 8). All Arabic verbal nouns of the measure إِنْهِعَال infrāl, in which the first, second, and fifth letters are servile and constant: e.g. اِنْفَال insirām, 'ending,' 'ceasing,' اِنْفَال infisāl, 'decision.'
- *Rem. There are a few exceptions, as المُتَابِعُ الْمُتَابِعُ الْمُتَالِعُ الْمُتَابِعُ الْمُتَابِعُ الْمُتَابِعُ الْمُتَابِعُ الْمُتَابِعُ الْمُتَابِعُ الْمُتَعِمِ الْمُتَعِمِ الْمُتَعِمِ الْمُتَالِعُ الْمُتَابِعُ الْمُتَالِعُ الْمُتَالِعُ الْمُتَالِعُ الْمُتَالِعُ الْمُتَالِعِ الْمُتَالِعُ الْمُتَالِعِيْنِ الْمُتَعِلِعِيْ الْمُتَالِعِ الْمُتَالِعِيْنِ الْمُتَالِعِيْنِ الْمُتَعِلِعِيْنِ الْمُتَعِلِعِ الْمُتَعِلِعِيْنِ الْمُتَعِلِعِيْنِ الْمُتَعِلِعِيْنِ الْمُتَعِلِعِيْنِ الْمُتَعِلِعِيْنِ الْمُتَعِلِعِيْنِ الْمُعِلِعِيْنِ الْمُتَعِلِعِيْنِ الْمُتَعِلِعِيْنِ الْمُتَعِلِعِيْنِعِلِعِيْنِ الْمُتَعِلِعِيْنِ الْمُتَعِلِعِيْنِ الْمُتَعِلِعِيْنِ الْمُتَعِلِعِيْنِ الْمُعِلِعِيْنِ الْمُتَعِلِعِيْنِ الْمُتَعِلِعِيْنِ الْمُعِلِعِيْنِ الْمُتَعِلِعِيْنِ الْمُعِلِعِيْنِ الْمُتَعِلِعِيْنِ الْمُعِلِعِيْنِ الْمُعِلِعِيْنِعِيْنِ
- 10). Arabic verbal nouns of the measure المتناعل istiffal, in which the first three letters are servile and characteristic, and the sixth letter also is servile: e.y. المتعال istigfar, 'begging forgiveness,' المتعمال istë māl, 'use.'

Rem. The exceptions are استغداد iste 'dād, 'capacity,' استغداد (istikrāk, 'aversion,' استغداد istimdād, 'begging help,' استغداد istid'ā, 'supplication,' أسترا istirṣā, 'seeking to please.'

11). Arabic nouns of place and time of the measures مَعْعَلُ maf'al and مَعْعَلُ maf'il, in which the first letter is characteristic: e.g. مصدر masdar, 'the source' (of any thing), مكان maskan, 'habitation,' مكان maskan مقام

makūn, 'halting, or dwelling place,' مشرق mashrik, 'rising place' (of the sun), مغرب magrib, 'setting place' (of the sun).

Rem. The principal exceptions are: مجال "majāl, 'scope,' 'power,' "maḥshar, 'a place of gathering,' مخشر "maḥshar, 'royal presence,' "مخشل "maḥṣli, 'a place of meeting,' مخيل "maṣjid, 'a mosque,' منظول "manzil, 'a halting place.'

12). Arabie nomina instrumenti of the measure منْعن mif'al, in which the first letter is characteristic, e.g. مِنْبر mimbar, 'a pulpit,' وحَسَن miskal, 'a furbishing instrument.'

Rem. in minkhar, 'a nostril,' is perhaps the only exception.

- 28. Feminine by form are:
- 1). Arabic nouns ending in \bar{a} : e.g. نق $bak\bar{a}$, 'duration,' $bal\bar{a}$, 'evil'; and all Hindī diminutives ending in $\dot{u}=iy\bar{a}$, as $\dot{u}=chiry\bar{a}$, 'a bird,' پَتِيا 'phuriyā, 'a pimple.'

Rem. Not a few Arabic nouns ending in a are masculine, but those that are feminine are far more numerous.

2). Arabic nouns ending in عند t: c.g. النفت ulfut, 'familiarity,' عزت 'izzat, 'honour;' as also l'ersian abstract nouns formed by dropping the final of the Infinitive: e.g. وفت raft (from رفت , raft (from رفت), 'speaking.'

Rem. The exceptions in the first case are very few: e.g. يَبُوت subūt, 'confirmation,' شربت sharbat, 'a drink,' وقت 'wakt, 'time,' خلفت 'khil'at, 'a robe of honour,' يافوت 'yākūt, 'a ruby,' and perhaps a few more. The rule does not apply to Hindī nouns, nor indeed to any other Persian nouns than the class mentioned.

3). All nouns terminating in the syllable discharged or

رت wat, preceded by the long vowel ā: e.g. گنبراهت ghabrāhat, 'perturbation,' بناوت banāwat, 'invention,' 'fabrication.'

Rem. The affixes $\bar{a}hat$ and $\bar{a}wat$ help to form a large class of abstract substantives. In the Dakhini dialect these affixes take the form $\bar{a}t$:

e.g. $|a| \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} ghabr\bar{a}t$.

4). Persian nouns (chiefly, if not all, abstract substantives) ending in the syllable مانِش ish; as دانِش dānish, 'wisdom,' نائِش nālish, 'complaint.'

Rem. بالش bālish, 'a pillow,' is perhaps the solitary exception. It may here be observed that sh, simply, is not a feminine termination in Urdū.

• 5) Nouns ending in روثي : e.g. روثي rotī, 'bread,' مراجي surāḥī, 'a gugglet,' مُراجِي huḍḍī, 'a bone.'

Rem. رباني pānī, 'water,' جي jī, 'life,' دجي dahī, 'curdled milk,' ولاني pānī, 'elarified butter,' موتي motī, 'a pearl,' المقالمة hāthī, 'an elephant,' and a few other words are exceptions.¹ Relative adjectives, as خزائجي dhobī, 'a washerman,' خزائجي khazānchī, 'a treasurer,' are of course masculine by signification

6). Abstract nouns formed by dropping the characteristic

These words are masculine or neuter in Sanskrit, and, as a general rule, such words are masculine in Hindī. There are numerous exceptions though . e.g. \$\alpha_g\$ a.g., 'fire,' \$t\alpha_r\$ a.'star,' \$b\alpha_r\$ b.'stam,' 'vapour' (=S. \$rashpa_r\$ m.), \$deh\$,' the body,' etc. Mr. Dowson, however (Urdū Grammar, p. 22), writes as though the rule were of universal application, and applied equally to words derived from the Arabic also. He says, "Sanskrit and Arabic scholars should bear in mind that words borrowed from those languages retain 'their original gender; masculines and neuters being masculine, and feminines remain (sic) feminine in Hindūstānī." We were not aware before of there being a neuter gender in Arabic; and as regards the derivatives from that language we can adduce examples by the score in which Arabic feminines have been changed to masculines in Urdū and *vac virsā; here are a few \$af^a_i\$, 'viper,' jahannam, 'hell,' *khamr, 'wine,' *shams, 'the *sun,' *sahrā, 'dosert,' 'aṣā, ' *staff,' nais, 'soul,' etc., not to speak of the long list of verbal nouns in which Urdū changes the feminine termination \$\alpha\$ of the Arabic into the masculine \$\alpha - a;\$ as muḥāwara, 'idhom.'

syllable نا nā of the Infinitive; e.g. مارّنا mār (from مارّنا mārnā), 'beating,' أوت القبار (from أوتنا lūṭnā), 'plunder,' أوت القبار chhāp, 'printing,' 'impression,' چهاپ samajh, 'understanding,' رگز 'ragar, 'rubbing,' 'friction.'

Rem. The exceptions are کنبل khel, 'play,' نوچ noch, 'scratch,' کنبل noch, 'scratch,' انگت noch, 'shove,' نگت nichor, 'extract,' نگت nichor, 'extract,' نگت nichor, 'extract,' بنگت noch, 'dance,' نگت noch, 'dance,'

7). Arabie verbal nouns of the measure نَعْمِلُ tuf'īl, in which the first and fourth letters are servile and characteristic; e.g. تَسْكَبَى turgīb, 'exciting desire,' تَسْكَبَى turgīb, 'execution' (of an order).

Rem. تَعْوِيدُ ta'wīz, 'an amulet,' is perhaps the only exception. •

- 8). Arabic nomina instrumenti of the measure وَنْعَال mif'āl, in which the first and fourth letters are servile and characteristic: e.g. ونتكار milṛrāz, 'scissors,' ونتكار minhār, 'a bird's beak,' وبنزان mīzān, 'a balance.'
- Rem. a. The exceptions are منشار minshār, 'a hand-saw,' مسمار mismār, 'a peg or nail,' معيار mi'yār, 'a touchstone,' 'an assay-balance.'
- Rem. c. The words بَنْنُ hulbul, أَعْرُ $j\bar{a}n$, 'life.' فِكْر fikr, 'thought,' are masculine or feminine, but the latter is generally considered correct in Northern India.
- Rem. d. (ieneric nouns (أَسْمَ جِنْسُ jins) are either masculine or feminine, and apply equally to both sexes; e.g. چيل chīl, 'a kite,' is feminine; هرب haran or hiran, is masculine. In some cases, however, the terminations ā, ī are added to such nouns to distinguish the sex: e.g. الذوبي harnā, 'a buck,' هرنا harnā, 'a doe.' The word هرنا.

'a human being,' though properly a generic noun, and hence applicable to females as well as males, is rarely treated as a feminine by Mohammadans; where a Hindā might say القبي آدمي achchhā ādmā, 'a good woman,' a Musalmān would say, ما مورت achchhā 'aurat.

29. The gender of compounds is generally determined by the latter part of the compound: e.g. شکارگاه shikār-gāh, 'a hunting-ground,' شکار shahr-panāh, 'a wall of defence round a town,' are feminine, because the words ما يقله and ينه panāh are feminine. There are exceptions however; as ينه الله pā'e-yāh, 'dignity,' ينه الله kibla-yāh, 'an object of reverence,' 'father,' نوشدارو 'nosh-dārā, 'medicine,' 'a draught.'

FORMATION OF FEMININES FROM MASCULINES.

30. The most common termination used to form feminines from masculines is \bar{i} . If the masculine end in a consonant, this termination is merely added to it; as

براهمس الممني المته الم

If the masculine end in \bar{u} or u(s-), these terminations are changed into \bar{i} for the feminine: e.g.

از کا الازکا ال

- 31. Other common feminine affixes are $0 \neq an$ or in, $n\bar{n}$, and $i\bar{n}$, which are all used in the ease of rational beings (chiefly with nouns denoting caste, trade, occupation, etc.), and the last two in the ease of irrational animals also. In the application of these the following rules are to be observed:
- 1). If the masculine end in a consonant, the affixes are merely added: e.g.

2). If the masculine end in a long vowel preceded by any consonant except ω y, the vowel is generally dropped before the affixes are added, and a long ma^iruf vowel in a monosyllabic masculine noun shortened: e.g.

لَمْ dulhā, 'a bridegroom,' وَلَمْ dulhān, 'a bride.' للمن bareṭhā, 'a washerman,' بريتها bareṭhan, 'a washerwoman.' كَاْجَرِا لَمُ لَمْ لَاسْمَانِيَّةُ لَهُ لَمْ اللهُ لَمْ لَاسْمَانِيَّةً لَمْ اللهُ ال

Rem. In the word $mum\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$ (for $mam\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$) the influence of final \bar{u} in the masculine is sufficient to change the first vowel from a into u. In some instances final \bar{u} of the masculine is not dropped in the feminine:

e.g. \bar{u} \bar{u}

3). If the termination of the masculine be \bar{a} preceded by $y(y, \bar{a})$, or \bar{i} preceded by hanza (\bar{i} , in which case a long vowel precedes), \bar{a} in the first is not dropped, and in both cases the affix an or in is changed to y an or \bar{i} , in: e.g.

Rem. The above affixes are all derived from the Sanskrit affix आनो anī, (e.g. ﴿وَرِينَا indrāṇṣ̄, 'the wife of Indra'). Of the two forms an and in of the first affix, the latter is more commonly used in towns, and by Musalmāns. This affix is also added to Arabic nouns to form the names of women; e.g. احبرا المسترسم المسترسم

32. Other masculines and feminines are:

راجا
$$r\bar{a}j\bar{a}$$
, 'a king,' واجا $r\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, 'queen.' والجا $n\bar{a}yak$, 'a youth,' etc. نايك $n\bar{a}'ik$, 'a youth,' etc. نايك $n\bar{a}'ik$, 'a damsel,' etc. نايك $h\bar{a}'ik$, 'brother,' $h\bar{a}h$ بهائي $h\bar{a}h$ بهائي $h\bar{a}h$ 'a maternal uncle,' خالم $h\bar{a}h$, 'a maternal uncle,' $h\bar{a}h$, 'aunt.' $h\bar{a}h$, 'lady,' 'princess.' $h\bar{a}h$, 'lady,' 'princess.' $h\bar{a}h$, 'lady,' 'princess.' $h\bar{a}h$

The first of these is derived, through the Prākrit, from the Sanskrit $r\bar{a}jn\bar{\iota}$, by elision of j; the second is taken intact from the Sanskrit, and is perhaps the only example in Urdū of a feminine so formed; the third is derived through the Prākrit from the Sanskrit bhugin $\bar{\iota}$; the fourth is the regular Arabic feminine of $\underline{kh}\bar{a}l$, which is also in use, and of which $\underline{kh}\bar{a}l\bar{u}$ is probably a corruption; the two last are borrowed (through the Persian) from the Turkish.

33. In many cases distinct words are used for the feminine: e.g.

And the distinction of sex is occasionally indicated, as in Persian, by means of the words نر ماده, 'male,' ماده māda, 'female': e.g. شير نر sherĕ nar, or نر شير nar sher, 'a male tiger,' شبر ماده sherĕ mādu, 'a female tiger.'

Rem. The formation of Arabic feminines will be treated separately in the section on Persian and Arabic constructions.

- 34. Nouns have two numbers, the singular ($\sqrt[4]{\omega a}$), and the plural ($\sqrt[4]{\omega a}$). The nominative singular has no case-sign, but is always identical with the crude form of the noun. The formation of the plural depends on the termination and gender of the singular. The following rules may be laid down respecting it.
- 1). Masculines ending in a consonant, or in one of the long vowels, \bar{u} or o, $\bar{u} = \bar{i}$, as also a few Hindī masculines ending in $l = \bar{u}$, that are proper names, or nouns denoting relationship, titles, professions, etc., and Persian and

Arabic words with the same termination, remain unchanged in the nominative plural: e.g.

Rem. A few Arabic words ending in \bar{a} are exceptions: e.g. in \bar{a} , $m\bar{a}jar\bar{a}$, which is treated like Hindi masculines ending in \bar{a} , and has for its nom. plural of $m\bar{a}jare$.

- Rem. a. One Hindi noun of relationship, namely, $d\bar{a}d\bar{a}$, 'a paternal grandfather,' and a few Arabic nouns; as $m\bar{a}jar\bar{a}$, 'state,' incident,' also come under this rule. And as regards nouns ending in $s \leq a$, it may be observed that the custom now appears to be to retain the final h in writing, but to pronounce it like e: e.g. (pronounced parde) 'curtains.'
- Rem. b. The plural termination e corresponds to the plural termination e of the Prākrit, vide Lassen's Instit. Ling. Prāk. p. 430.
- 3). Feminines ending in $\overline{z} = \overline{i}$ form the nominative plural by adding $\sqrt{-\overline{u}n}$ to the singular, the fatha of the

affix changing the letter of prolongation φ into the consonant y: e.g.

Rem. The termination $\bar{a}\dot{n}$ corresponds to the Prākrit plural increment o, which is changed to \bar{a} and nasalized.

4). Feminines ending in any letter except $-\bar{i}$ form the nominative plural by adding the termination -en to the singular; as

If the singular end in one of the long vowels $1 - \bar{a}$, $-\bar{u}$ or o, hamza is employed to enounce the initial vowel of the termination: e.g.

If, however, the singular end in s - a, or s - c, these terminations are dropped before the plural affix is added: e.g.

Rem. a. The word jorū has for its plural جوروال jorū'ūn as well as the regular jorū'en; and a few other words ending in ū or o perhaps never occur in the plural: e.g. بالو bālū, 'sand,' خارُو dārū, 'liquor,' دارُو kū, 'a street,' مُنو sū, 'direction,' هجو hajo, 'satire,' ترازُو tarāsū, 'a pair of scales.' As exceptions to the rule we may note the class of

feminine diminutives which end in الله نهو $iy\bar{a}$; as الله على $chiriy\bar{a}$, 'a bird,' $burhiy\bar{a}$, 'an old woman,' بره $phuriy\bar{a}$, 'a pimple;' these take the plural forms of the feminines from which they are derived: e.g. $burhiy\bar{a}n$ (= pl. of $burh\bar{\iota}$).

Rem. b. The plural affix $e\dot{n}$, like the preceding affix $a\dot{n}$, corresponds to the Prākrit affix o, which is frequently changed to e in the Prākrit dialects.

Rem. c. Dissyllables with a short vowel in the first syllable, and fatha (a) in the second, generally drop the fatha when, in the course of inflection or derivation, a syllable is added beginning with a vowel:
e.g. جگير jaghen, plural of جگير jagah, 'a place.'

3. Declension (گردان taṣrīf, or گردار gardān).

- 35. Strictly speaking there is no such thing as declension in Urdū; the cases are formed by means of certain adverbs (called خرف معنوي hurūfĕ manawī, 'significant particles,' by the native grammarians), which are placed after the noun, and hence termed postpositions.
- 36. The cases (حالت hālāt), as generally given in Hindūstānī grammars, are eight in number; namely, the Nominative, Agent, Genitive, Dative, Accusative, Ablative, Locative, and Vocative. In reality, however, there are but two cases; viz. the crude form or Nominative, and the oblique form, or that to which the postpositions are added, and which Dr. Caldwell happily terms the Formative.

Rem. Most Urdū grammarians, ignoring all grammatical forms save those of the Arabic and Persian, recognise but three cases; viz. the Nominative and Agent (حالت فاعِل hālatē fā'ilī, or حالت إضافت hālatē izāfat), and the Dative-Accusative مفعولي hālatē maf'ūlī, or مفعولي hālatē maf'ūlī, or مفعولي

lative and Locative they term جَرُور و جار majrūr o jūrr, 'the attracted and the attracting' (i.e. the object attracted and the preposition attracting it); and the Vocative they call نِدا و مُناديل nidā o munādā, 'the calling and the called.'

37. The postpositions which are used in lieu of case-endings are:

38. The singular nominative, as we have already observed, has no postposition added to it, but is always identical with the crude form of the noun.

The postposition of the agent case is derived from the affix na^1 of the Sanskrit instrumental case (singular), to which it was no doubt at first understood to correspond in use and signification; but according to the conception of those who now employ it, it is nothing more than a mere sign to distinguish the subject or agent of a transitive verb in the tenses formed with the passive participle ($\S\S$ 183, 188).

The genitive case is simply an adjective, formed by means of an adjective affix (see § 42).

The accusative case, strictly speaking, does not exist in Hindī and Urdū; its place is supplied by the nominative (which we shall call the direct object), or by the dative, in which case the postposition to is not to be translated into English.

The vocative case takes no postposition, but a variety of interjections may be prefixed to it.

¹ For the derivation of the other postpositions see the section on Prepositions and Postpositions.

- Rem. a. The force of the dative is occasionally expressed by the postpositions تأيين ta'īn, 'to,' and الله المؤدو المؤدو
- ' Rem. b. Two postpositions (generally those of the ablative and locative cases) are frequently used together: e.g. غبر مين عن ghar-men-se, 'from within the house,' بَيْل پر عن bail-par-se, 'from upon the ox.' In such cases the first is regarded by some of the native grammarians as a noun governing the preceding noun in the genitive.
- 39. The form assumed by a noun before it takes a post-position after it (whether that postposition be expressed or understood) is generally termed the *oblique form*. We prefer calling it, with Dr. Caldwell, the *Formative*. In constructing the Formative the following cases arise:
- 1). If the nominative singular end in any letter except the masculine terminations $1 = \bar{a}$ and s = a (§ 33, 2), the Formative singular is identical with the nominative, and the Formative plural is obtained by adding the termination 0, on to the singular: e.g. nom. sing. In the vocative plural the nasal n of the termination on is dropped, e.g., gharo, 'O houses.'

- 2). If the nom. sing. end in اخ ā or ع ه (§ 33, 2), the Formatives are obtained by changing these letters into و و for the singular, and و ص on for the plural: e.g. nom. sing. گبورتای ghorā, 'a horse,' singular Formative گبورتای ghore, plural Formative پوهرتای ghoron; nom. sing. غضون gussa, 'anger,' sing. Form غضون gusse, plural Form. عضون gussa, 'anger,' sing. Form غضون Ghasītā, Formative عمد Ghasītā.
- Rem. a. According to some native grammarians no proper name should be inflected; hence we find in the Kawā'idĕ Urdū, Part III., جمنا کے کہنے سے وُہ دریا سمجیا جائیگا جو دِهٰلی منبرا آگرہ کے نِتِیے jamnā-ke kahnē-se wöh daryā samjhā-jū'egā jo děhlī mathurā āgra-ke nāche bahtā hai, 'By mentioning the Jamnā that river will be understood which flows by (lit. under) Dehlī, Mathurā, and Āgra.'
- Rem. b. The Formative is originally, as Dr. Trumpp suggests (Sindhī Gram. p. 123), the Prākrit Genitive. This is not very clear in the singular, but the termination on of the Formative plural is evidently the termination and or and of the Prākrit genitive plural, and in the case of the pronouns the identity is unmistakeable.
 - 40. All nouns then may be arranged in two classes or declensions, corresponding to the two forms of the Formative.

THE FIRST DECLENSION.

41. The first declension comprises all feminines, and masculines terminating in any letter except (original) s = a; those ending in $l = \bar{a}$, however, are Persian or Arabic words, or Hindī nouns of relationship, etc. (§ 33, 1); e.g.

1). پخ ghar, 'a house' (masc.).

Nom.

ghar, 'a house.'

S ghar, 'houses.'

Formative as ghar.

gharon.

Agent. گیر نے ghar-ne, 'by a house.' گیر نے gharon-ne, 'by houses.'

Gen. لا ي ghar-kā, 'of a house.' كير كا gharon-kā, 'of houses.'

Dat. کهر وی کو ghar-ko, 'to a house.' کهر وی کو gharon-ko, 'to houses.'

 $\left\{\begin{array}{ll}ghar,\\ghar-ko,\end{array}\right\}$ 'a house.' څهر ghar, ghar-i-ko,

gharon-se, 'from houses.' عَبْرُ وَلِي سِي ghar-se, 'from, with, گَهْرُ سِي Abl. by, a house.'

Spharon-men, 'in houses.' عرون مين - ير ghar-men, -par, 'in, كهرون مين - ير

Voc. إلى كور ai ghar, 'O house.' من الما ai gharo, 'O houses.'

2). 😂 chachā, 'a paternal uncle.'

chachā, 'an uncle.'

chachā, 'uncles.'

Form. L=> chachā.

. chachā'on. چيائي

Agent خچانے chachā-ne, 'by an uncle.' جماؤں نے chachā'on-ne, 'by uncles.' Gen. چچاؤں کا 'chachā-kā, 'of an uncle.' چچاؤں کا 'chachā'on kā, 'of unclos.' etc. etc. etc.

Rem. Like chachā are declined such Hindī nouns as , rājā, 'a king,' W lālā, 'a master,' as also Persian and Arabic nouns (masc.); e.g. دريا daryā, 'a river,' المحت ṣaḥrā, 'a desert.'

3.) موتى $mot\bar{\imath}$, 'a pearl' (masc.).

Nom. موتِي motī, 'a pearl.' موتِي motī, 'pearls.'

Form. موتيوں motiyon or moti'on.

Gen. موتيوں کا motī-kā, 'of pearl.' موتيوں کا motiyon-kā, 'of pearls.'

4). في bichchhū, 'a scorpion' (masc.).

Nom. پُخچو bichchhū, 'a scorpions.' بُخچو bichchhū, 'scorpions.' pron.

Form. پخچوون bichchhū. پخچوون bichchhū'on.

Agent پخچوون نے bichchhū-ne, 'by a bichchhū'on-ne, 'by scor-

Rem. Final \bar{u} is occasionally shortened before the termination on of the Formative plural is added; as آنْسُون ānsu'on (for آنْسُون ānsū'on); and if final $\underline{\cdot} = \bar{u}$ or o be preceded by $\underline{\cdot} = \bar{u}$, it is frequently dropped in the Formative plural: e.g. گياؤ ghā'vn, from گياؤ ghā'v, 'a wound or sore.' On the same principle final w in such words as يانّو pānw, 'a foot,' گانّو gānw, 'a village,' etc., is frequently dropped in the Formative plural, and occasionally the preceding nasal also: e.g. بانْبُول pānon and pānucin. In the singular of such words moreover final w is often transposed and changed to o, and hence the singular form پاؤں $p\bar{a}'v\dot{n}$, 'a foot,' گاؤں $gav\dot{n}$, 'a village,' the Formative plural of which has the same form by contraction.

	ارد $rar{u}t$,	'night' (fem.).
Nom.	رات rāt, 'night.'	rāten, 'nights.'
Form.	رات, rat.	rāton.
Gen.	rāt-kā, 'of night.' etc. etc.	اتوں کا rāton-lā, 'of nights.' etc. etc.
	6). أي dawā, '	medicine' (fem.).
N T	1 A dama (manificiana)	1 Same in Comment

7). bo or $b\bar{u}$, 'smell' (fem.).

Nom. , bo or bū, 'smell.'.

Form. , bo or bū.

بوئيں bo'en or bū'en, 'smells.' bū'on.

Rem. The few feminines ending in e and $a(s \leq)$ not only drop those letters in the nominative plural, but also in the Formative plural: e.g. فاخّته fākhton, from فاخّتوں 'gā'e, 'a cow گائي gā'on, from گاؤں fākhta, 'a dove.'

8). لـزّكي laṛkī, 'a girl.'

Nom. لَوْكِي larkī, 'a girl.' لَوْكِيال larkiyān, 'girls.' Form. Larkī.

larkiyon or larkī'on.

Rem. a. Feminine diminutives, such as چڙيا chiriya, 'a bird,' پئڙيا phuriyā, 'a small boil,' drop the final \bar{a} in the Formative plural (as in the plur. nom.), and so have the same plural forms as feminines ending in ī: e.g. nom. pl. چڙيان chiriyān, 'birds,' Form. pl. چڙيان chiriyōn.

Rem. b. A noun terminating in nasal n is declined in the singular just as if the nasal were not present, but the nasal is dropped in the plural.

THE SECOND DECLENSION.

42. The second declension comprises all masculine (Hindī) nouns ending in $1 = \bar{a}$ (except such as denote relationship, titles, professions, etc.) and all masculines ending, in $s \leftarrow a$: e.g.

1). لَرِّكَا larkā, 'a boy.' Nom. لزَّك larkā, 'a boy.' لزَّك larke, 'boys.'

Form. لزَّكو larke. لزَّكو larkon.

Agent لزَّكون نے larke-ne, 'by a boy.' لزَّك نے larkon-ne, 'by boys.' Voc. { الزَّكو larke, 'boy!' الزَّكو larke, 'boys!' الزَّكو ai larke, 'O boy!' الزَّكِ ai larke, 'O boys!'

2). پرده parda. 'a curtain.'

SINGULAR.

Nom. پرْدە parda, 'a curtain.' پرْدە parde, 'curtains.' parde پرْدوي pardoi.

Rem. a. According to the present custom of writing such words as end in s = a, the Formative singular is identical, in writing, with the nominative: e.g. $s \circ s$, pronounced parde.

Rem. b. A few masc. Arabic nouns also, as أجرا mājarā, 'incident,' 'circumstance,' نشا nashā, 'intoxication,' belong to this declension.

Rem. c. Nasal n at the end of words is retained in the singular, as also in the nominative plural, but dropped in the Formative plural: e.g. nom. sing. بنیال baniyān, 'a merchant,' Form. sing. بنیال baniyen, nom. pl. بنیول baniyen, Form. pl. بنیول baniyen,

Rem. d. Words ending in نه ya, as غياني pāya, 'the foot or leg' (of a thing), خوايه kirāya, 'hire,' 'rent,' may follow the general rule, or change y into hamza in the Form. sing.: e.g. پائے pāye or پائے pā'e, پائے kirā'e. In the plural, however, the rule is generally observed. Similarly from رُوپئے rūpa'e or رُوپئے rūpa'e or رُوپئے rūpa'e; and from رُوپئے rupa'e or رُبئے rupa'e. It is a mistake to derive these forms from رُبئي rūpiya, and call them irregular.

THE GENITIVE (مُضاف إليه).

43. The Genitive, as has been remarked before, is formed by means of an adjective affix ($\forall k\bar{a} = \text{Pr}\bar{a}\text{krit}$ and ko = Sanskrit and is a real adjective, changing its termination so as to agree with its governing noun (the distance), just as the Hindī adjective ending in $-\bar{a}$ does.

Rem. The Persian genitive construction is also used in Urdū, and it is a noteworthy fact that the relation of the governed to the governing

noun is expressed in the same manner as that of a noun to the adjective qualifying it (see *Persian Constructions*, § 76).

III. THE ADJECTIVE (إِنَّم صِفْت).

- 44. The adjective generally precedes the noun it qualifies, and, unless it end in $1 \bar{a}$, and be derived from the Hindī, is indeclinable: e.g. سفید گبوڙا sufed ghorā, 'a white horse;' سفید گبوڙي safed ghorē, 'a white mare;' سفید گبوڙي safed ghore, 'white horses.'
- 45. Adjectives (not Persian or Arabie) which end in $1 \bar{a}$ (the masc. termination), are declined in the singular like nouns of the Second Declension, and form the nom. pl. in the same way; but the Formative pl. is identical with that of the singular. The feminine is formed by changing the termination $1 \bar{a}$, of the masc. into $\bar{a} = \bar{a}$, and is not altered for ease or number: e.g.

The genitive is similarly declined: e.g.

Singular.

Nom. گير گي ghar-kā, 'of the house,' گير گي ghar-kī.

'household.'

Form. گير گي ghar-kī.

Plural.

Nom. گير گي ghar-kē.

Form. گير گي ghar-kē.

Şahar-kī.

Examples: اجْبِي اَدْمِي اللهُ الْجَبِي اَدْمِي اللهُ اللهُ

- Rem. a. One Persian adjective ending in الشر قرب judā, 'separate,' and one Arabic, فُلانا fulānā (for فُلانه), 'certain,' are sīmilarly declined.
- Rem. e. If final ā of an adjective be nasalized, the nasal does not affect its declension, but is retained in all the cases: e.g. بایال هاته bāyān hāth, 'the left hand,' ماته کو bāyān hāth, 'the left hand,' بائیس طرف bāyān ṭaraf, 'the left side.'
- Rem. d. The adjective occasionally follows the noun it qualifies. This is especially the case if the attribute is to be emphasized or brought prominently to notice. In the older writings, marcover, femi-

nine adjectives following the nouns they qualify sometimes take the plural termination of substantives; as راتيل بهاريال rāten bhāriyān, 'heavy or wearisome nights;' كُوتُّهِرِيَال بَهُت أُوتِيَال kothriyān bahut unchiyān, 'very lofty rooms;' but this construction is now obsolete.

- 46. A few Persian adjectives ending in غـ a are declined like Hindī adjectives ending in ā; but as a rule such adjectives are indeclinable. The following are the most important of those that inflect: بيچاره be-chāra, 'helpless,' 'poor,' خان tūza, 'fresh,' حامزاده harām-zūda, 'base-born,' 'rascally,' الده dīwāna, 'mad,' 'insane,' مالك خانه sharminda, 'ashamed,' 'bashful,' كمنت sharminda, 'fetid,' 'rotten,' هـ مالك سقام mānda, 'tired,' 'indisposed,' ناديده nā-dīda, 'unseen,' ناكاره 'tired,' 'useless.'
- Rem. a. To these some grammarians add عَمْدُهُ نُسْطَمَّمُ, 'exalted,' dū-sāla, 'annual,' etc., but these are not inflected by writers of the present day: e.g. عُمْدِهُ بات 'umda bāt, 'an excellent matter,' not عُمْدِي بات
- Rem. b. Adjectives, when used as concrete nouns, are declined like nouns: e.g. Ula dānā, 'a wise man,' عانا أول عن dānā'on-se, 'from the wise.'

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

47. Adjectives undergo no change of form to express the comparative and superlative degrees. When two objects are compared, that with which the comparison is made generally takes the form of the ablative, the adjective itself remaining in the positive and following it: e.g. موهن mohan zaid-se barū hai, 'Mohan is bigger than Zaid.' The superlative is, strictly speaking, nothing more than a comparative involving the pronominal adjective

sab, 'all,' (prefixed to the ablative, either expressed or understood) as its complement: e.g. موهن سب لترّكوں سے mohan sab larkon-se achchhā hai, 'Mohan is better than (the best of) all the boys;' من سب سے برّا هي wŏh sab-se barā hai, 'he is bigger than (the biggest of) all.'

Rem. a. The particle signifies the difference between two objects that are compared with each other, and hence its use in forming the comparative degree. It is a remarkable fact that this method of forming the comparative and superlative is borrowed from the Semitic languages. The only trace of the Sanskrit method that exists in Urdū is found in the forms borrowed from the Persian, as bih, 'good,' bih-tar, 'better,' ..., bih

Rem. b. Instead of the ablative, however, we occasionally meet with the genitive or the locative; as موهن سب کا بتا هي mohan sab-kā barā hai, 'Mohan is biggest of all;' هي الميان المي

48. An intensive signification is given to an adjective, in either the positive or comparative degree: 1) by repeating it; as اجَهَا اجْهَا الْجَهَا الْحَالِقَا الْجَهَا الْجَهَا الْحَالِقَا الْجَهَا الْجَهَا الْجَهَا الْجَهَا الْجَهَا الْحَالِقَا الْحَلَى الْحَالِقَا الْحَلَى الْ

- 50. Whether the adjunct $\$ be employed as an intensive, or as an adjective of similitude, it is declinable like Hindī adjectives ending in $\$ $= \bar{a}$, and the noun to which it is added inflects just as it would do without it: e.g. ببُرت $\$ $= bahut-se\ ghore$, 'a great many horses;' كالِي سِي گهوڙي $bahut-se\ ghore$, 'a great many horses;' كالِي سِي گهوڙي $bahut-se\ ghore$, 'very black (or blackish) mares.' $bahut-se\ ghoriyān$, 'very black (or blackish)

Rem. L sā or Like, 'resembling,' is most probably the

¹ The use of $s\bar{a}$ after the genitive appears to have perplexed the grammarians greatly. The matter belongs properly to Syntar; but we may observe here, that the construction in such cases is precisely similar to that of the English; the $muz\bar{a}f$, or noun which governs the genitive, is invariably understood, and it is to this that the adjunct of similitude is attached: e.g. in the phrase $shar-k\bar{i}-s\bar{i}$ $s\bar{u}rat$, the word $s\bar{u}rat$ (to which the adjunct $s\bar{a}$ pertains) is understood after ki, just as, in the English equivalent, 'a form like $s\bar{i}$ tiger's, 'the word 'form' is understood after 'tiger's' (Cf. also § 362).

Prākrit form of the Sanskrit समान like; whereas the intensive particle is derived from the Sanskrit भ्रम sas, 'fold,' etc.

IV. NUMERAL ADJECTIVES (اِسْمِ عدد).

51. The Urdū numerals are the same as those of the Hindī, and are derived from the Sanskrit through the medium of the Prākrit.¹ Like other adjectives they

¹ In deriving its words from the Prākrit, the Hindī generally drops finel short vowels, endes one or both the letters of conjuncts, and lengthens medial short vowels, especially where a conjunct, or one of the consonants, is chied. Thus we have —One, Sanskrit ela, Prākrit, ela, Hindī ele:—Two, S. dvi, P. do, H. do.—Theo, S. tri, P. timpi, H. tin:—Four, S. chatur, P. chattūri, H. chūr, by chision of the conjunct.—Fre, S. poischan, P. paūcha, H. pūūch —Sir, S. shash, P. chha, H. chha (the crebral sibilant of the Sanskrit being changed in Prākrit into elh —occasionally this sibilant is changed into h, very commonly into s. as is also the palatal sibilant s' of the Sanskrit, since Prākrit has no palatal or cerebral sibilant):—Seven, S. saptan, P. satta, H. sūt — Feght, S. ashtan, P. attha, H. ūth.—Nīne, S. novan, P. nau, H. nau.—Tēn, S. dašan, P. dasa, H. das.

From teo upwards the numbers are formed by prefixing the units to the tens, which, however, previously undergo a change of form teg, the Prākrit dasa is changed, terst to daha, and then to raha, as Eiecea, S. elādasan, P. eã aha, H. igārah (not eliding the k of the Sanskrit, but changing it into the soft g, and changing the diphthong e into the short vowel i), whence, by transposition of vowel, giārah, whence gyārah.—Twelve, S. drādasan, P. eāraha, H. bārah:—Therteen, S. trayodasan, P. terah, H. terah.—Fourteen, S. chaturdasan, P. chandah, H. enaudah:—Fefteen, S. pańchadasan, P. pangaraha, H. pandrah, for pandrah, by change of conjunct to nd before the liquid r.—Sexteen, S. shodasan, P. sorah or solah (i), H. sorah or solah—Sexenteen, S. saptadasan, P. sattaraha, H. satrah for sattarah:—Eighteen, S. ashladasan, P. attharaha, H. athārah:—Twenty, S. vinšati, P. vīsaī, H. bīs.

The numbers 19, 29, 39, etc. are formed by prefixing to the following decades the word un (Sanskrit ūna, 'diminished'), and making certain changes in the initial letters of some of the decades: e.g. the v of the Prākrit $v\bar{s}sa\bar{i}$, is cluded, as, Noneteen (i.e. 20 diminished by 1) is $un-\bar{s}s$: so also in the other compounds, $\epsilon k\bar{s}s$, 'twenty-one,' and so on.

Thirty, S. trimsat, P. tisan, H. tis, whence Twenty-nine, untis.

Forty, S. chatvarinkat, P. chattārisis (?), H. chātīs, by clision of the conjunct tt, and change of r to t. In compounds, chātīs is changed into $t\bar{a}t\bar{t}s$, before which the vowels a, i, r of the units are changed to c, $c\bar{n}$, or $ac\bar{n}$. In forty-two and forty-six, $c\bar{n}$ is clided.

Fifty, S. panchāśat, P. pannūsa, H. pachās (which is closer to the Sanskrit than to the Prākrit); whence, Fortu-nine, unchās, the first syllable of pachās being clided. In the numbers 50 to 58, the last syllable is dropped and original n restored; as pachpan. In 51, 52, 54, 57, 58, the p of pan is, for the sake of cuphony, softened into b, and thence into v or w.

From the Sanskrit shashti is derived the Hindī sāth, whence un-sath, 'fifty-nine,' iksath, 'sixty-one,' etc.

generally precede the noun, which may be in the singular or plural.

THE CARDINAL NUMBERS.

	FIGURES.		NAMES.		FIGURES.		NAMPS
-	ARABIC, NAGARI.				ARABIC	DEVA-	
1	1	9	ایک ek.	12	11	9२	باره bārah.
2	٢	२	.do دو	13	11	93	terch نیره
3	~	3	tīn.	14	112	98	chwalah. چوده
4	l pe	8	chār. چار	15	10	94	پندره pandrah.
5	٥	ų	pāneh. پانچ	16	17	9ई	soluh.
6	٦	٤	åzz chha.	17	11	99	satrai. ستره
7	V	e	سات sāt.	'! !	14	٩Œ	(athārah.
8	۸	E	āṭħ.	18	17	4	athārā.
9	٩	Q	نَو nau.	19	19	90	أنِبس أunis and unnis.
10	1.	90	سى das.	20	۲۰	२०	. نيس ئآء
11	11	99	j igārah. [گاره کیاره) gyārah.	21	۲۱	૨ ૧	ایکیس ا ۱۸۶۱ اکیس ا ikkīs.

In sattar, 'seventy,' the p of the Sanskrit saptati is assimilated to t, and final t changed into r; and in the compounds, initial s is, for the sake of euphony, changed into h; as unhattar, 'sixty-nine;' ikhattar, 'seventy-one.'

Assī, 'eighty,' is from the Sanskrit $a\dot{s}\bar{t}t\dot{t}$, the final t being clided, and the sibilant doubled. In the compounds, however, the doubling of the sibilant does not take place, while the conjunctive vowel \bar{a} is added to the units; as $un\bar{a}s\bar{t}$, 'eventy-nine;' $ik\bar{u}s\bar{t}$, 'eighty-one;' $nau\bar{u}s\bar{t}$, 'eighty-sine,' instead of $un\bar{u}naue$, as night have been expected.

Nawe, or navere, 'ninety,' is derived from the Sanskrit naveti. In the compounds formed therewith, the conjunctive vowel \bar{a} is added to the units e.g. ikunawe, 'ninety-one.'

The word sau, or sau, 'one hundred,' is derived from the Sanskrit sata, Prakrit sau.

	FIGURES.		NAMES.		FIGURES.		NAMES.
	ARABIC. DEVA- NAGARI.		- I.		ARABI	DEVA-	
22	177	२२	بائِيسي bā'īs.	40	p.	80	چالیس chālīs.
23	۲۳	२३	. تيئيش te'īs.	41	121	89	إلى إلى الكتاليس الك
21	712	२४	چوبيس چوبيس				ا نُتَالِيس ا iktālīs.
25	10	२५	يچيس pachīs.	42	127	४२	بياليس be'ālīs.
26	17	२ई	chhabbīs.	43	154	83	tentālīs. تبنتاليس
27	rv	२७	سيأتس satā'īs.	41	pp	88	chau'ālīs. چواليس
28	71	२८	aṭhā'īs.	45	Fe	84	paintālīs. پَبَتُّتَا ليس
29	۲۹	રહ	ا سبت ا witīs.	46	۴٦	४६	chhe'ālīs. چېبالىس
30	۳.	30	نیس <i>tīs</i> .	47	rv	80	ه saintālis. سَيسنا لبس
31	~1	३ 9	(تکتیس řktīs. ایکتیس) (ناز iktīs.	48	FA	ક્રદ	ارتالبس) artālīs. (athtālīs. النَّهَتَّالِيس)
32	۳۲	32	نتبس battīs.	49	وع	કહ	أخچاس unchās.
33	٣٣	३३	تبنّتِبس teintīs.	50	٥٠	40	پاس پچ pachās.
34	m _i e	ર ક	چوٽتبس chauntīs.	51	15	49	ایکاون (kāwan.
35	۳٥	રૂપ	paintīs. پَسْتِبس		ا		ikāwan. إكاون
36	۳٦	३६	chhattīs. چېټيس	52	سره	५ २	باون bāwan.
37	٣٧	<i>0</i> \$	هينتيس saintīs.	53		1	trěpunor tirpan. نير ډين
38	٣٨	35	(aṭhtīs,	51	ole	પછ	chauwan. چُون
		۶~	artīs.	55	60	44	, pachpan. پچپن
39	۱۳۹	30	(untālīs. أُنْتَالِيس)	56	الم	प६	chhappan. چېټن
		, -	أخياليس أأنهاليس أ	57	۷٥	७	.sattāwan ستّاون

FIGURES.		ES.	NAMES.		FIGURES.		names.
ARABIC, DEVA-		DEVA-		!	ARABIC	DFVA-	
58	۸ه	ųς	aṭhāwan. النَّهاون	75	Vo	190	pachhattar. چهتر
59	٩٥	૫૯	سته أنسته unsath.	76	٧٦	30	. جبتر chhihattar چبتر
60	٦٠	ξo	. sāṭħ.	77	vv	00	.sathattar ىستُهيتر
61	71	ર્દ્દવ	كسته كا د كنسته كالكسته الكسته الكست	78	VA	95	athattar. النهقر
"	''	47	أكسته iksath.	79	v 9	૭૯	أناسِي أسي أسي
62	٦٢	६२	bāsaṭh.	80	۸٠	⊏0	اسّي الله
63	71~	Ę́ą	tresalh or ترصقه tirsalh.	81	٨١	Εq	ايكاسِي (ڏ <i>kāsī</i> . اکاسِي) ikāsī.
64	712	ફ્8	chaunsath. چَونَسته	82	٨٢	۲ą	ياسِي be'āsī.
65	70	ર્ફપ	painsath. پَينسٿ	83	Λ	E 3	tirāsī. تِراسِي
66	77	ફંફ	چساليچ chhe'āsaṭh.	84	∧i ^c	ح۶	chaurāsī. چورانسي
67	70	Ęo	. sarsaṭh سرنسته	85	۸٥	Œų	پچاسِي pachāsī.
68	71	3 3	arsath.	86	۸٦	ΣĘ	چېباسي chhe'āsī.
00	'''	Ş	أَيْهِستَّجِ (الَّهِستَّجِ) athsath.	87	۸۷	E0	. satāsī.
69	79	ફ્દ	unhattar. أنَّهتّر	88	۸۸	ᆓ	athāsī. "
70	٧٠	00	.sattar ستر	89	19	⊏و	.nawāsī نَواسِي
71	VI	७१	ایکہتر ک čkhattar.	90	9.	60	" nawe or nawwe.
••	,		(ikhatlar اِکْہتر)	91	91	6 9	ایکانوي کانوی
72	77	७२	.bahattar بهتتر	<i>U</i> 1	• 1		ا .ikānawe اكانوي
73	۷۳	\$	tihattar. تِهتّر	92	97	૯ર	bānawe. بانوي
74	Me	80	chauhattar. چُوهتر	93	۳۱	૯રૂ	tirānawe. تِرانوي

FIGURES.			NAMES.	FIGURES.		s.	NAMES.
ARABIC. DEVA-					ARABIC.	DIVA- NAGARI.	
94	912	68	chaurānawe چُورانوي	98	91	62	.athānawe النهانوي
95	٥٩	૯૫	panchānawe پٽجانوي pachānawe پچانوي	99	99	وو	.inānawe نِنانوي) navānawe نوانوي)
96	97	૯ ફ	.chhe'ānawe چهيانوي				(au 804
97	9 V	60	.satānawe ستانوي	100	1	900	ه سَي الْمَ

Rem. In the compounds, nawe is generally contracted to nwe, as $ik\bar{a}nwe$, $b\bar{a}nwe$, or the vowel of n is pronounced very rapidly. In $Hind\bar{\iota}$ it also takes the form nawve.

sand' is نِنانوي هزار ninānawe hazār; but 'a hundred thousand' is expressed by a distinct word لاك lākh (Sanskrit laksha); a hundred lacs, or 'ten millions,' by the word كروڙ karor; a hundred karors, or 'a thousand millions,' by the word ارب arb; a hundred arbs, or 'a hundred thousand millions,' by the word كبرب khurb.

Rem. The numerals , هزار , سُو, and , مَارَب, and , are properly collective substantives, and are frequently used as such; arb and kharb do not occur as numeral adjectives in Urdū, but they are used in Numeration.

Rem. This خرف تنكبر is called حرف تنكبر harfe tankir, 'the indefinite particle.' It is occasionally prefixed to nouns, and then has the signification of the English indefinite article.

- 54. The numeral ایک ek, 'one,' is rendered indefinite by placing after it the word $\bar{a}id$ (said to be the contraction of the word $\bar{a}dh\bar{a}$, 'half,' but more probably the Sanskrit $\bar{a}di$, 'beginning'); as ایک آد ek $\bar{a}d$, 'beginning with one' 'one or more,' 'a few.'
- 55. Two numerals (not generally consecutive), when combined, often convey the idea of indefiniteness: e.g. در ما ما do chār (lit. two four), 'two or three,' 'a few;' دس بِیس 'dus bīs, 'ten or twenty.'

THE ORDINAL NUMBERS.

The first four of the series are regularly derived from the Prākrit. The remaining ordinals are formed from the cardinals, by adding the termination wān (corresponding to the Sanskrit tuna). As in English, in numbers above a hundred, the last part of the compound takes the form of the ordinal; as ايك سَو بيسُوال ck sau bīswān, 'the one hundred (and) twentieth.'

56. The ordinals are regularly inflected like adjectives ending in $i = \bar{a} : e.g.$ پانچوان $p\bar{a}nchw\bar{a}n$, 'the fifth,' Fem. پانچوین $p\bar{a}nchw\bar{n}$, Formative mase. پانچوین $p\bar{a}nchwen$.

COLLECTIVE NUMBERS.

- 57. Collective numerals may be formed by adding to the cardinals the adjective terminations $i = \bar{a}$, $i = \bar{i}$; as $b\bar{i}s\bar{a}$, 'a score;' جالِیسا ' $b\bar{i}s\bar{a}$, 'an aggregate of forty;' $batt\bar{i}s\bar{i}$, 'an aggregate of thirty-two.'
 - 58. The following nouns are used as collective numerals:

They are used as substantives, taking the noun after them in the genitive case, or in apposition.—The word المسكّرة is always used in lieu of مَوْ عَمْنَ عَلَى اللهُ ا

Rem. The phrase 'per cent.' is also very generally expressed by the Persian phrase في صدِي fة ṣad, or فِي صدِي fة ṣadī.

59. The cardinal numbers, especially the tens, may also be used as collective numerals; as چار بیس chūr bīs, 'four twenties.' More commonly, however, the cardinal number is put in the Formative plural, and is then used to convey the idea of 1) inclusiveness or totality; as فونر donon, 'the two together,' 'both' (the medial n of donon is inserted for euphony); تينون tīnon, 'the three together,' 'all the three;' and in some cases, to add force to the form, the crude form of the numeral is added to the Formative; as athon ath, 'the whole eight,' lit. 'the eight of the آٿيون آٿيو eight: 2) indefiniteness or numerousness, in which case the higher numerals are of course used, and the word اسكة saikṛā is employed in lieu of سَوْعُ عَبِي saikṛōn أَسَيكُوْ وَنَّ كَا عَبِي saikṛā is employed in lieu of سَيكُوْ وَنَّ كَالْعِيْنَ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهُ عَلِيهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهِ عَلِي عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلِي عَلِيهِ عَلِي عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلِهُ عَلَيْهِ ghar, 'hundreds of houses,' lit. 'houses in hundreds;' هزارون آدُوي hazāron ādmī, 'thousands of men,' 'men in thousands;' الكيور، رُئْتِ lūkhon rupa'e, 'lacs of rupees.'

Rem. a. It would appear from the current usage of the cognato dialects, that this form originally expressed collectiveness alone, and hence may be assumed by the lower numbers also; e.g. Sindhī einen, 'in twenties.'

Rem. b. By adding to the numeral ایک the affix of intensity, ایک elā, we have the form اکیلا akelā, 'one by itself,' 'alone,' corresponding to the series تینوں donon, تینوں tīnon, etc.'

DISTRIBUTIVE NUMERALS.

MULTIPLICATIVE NUMERALS.

- 61. The multiplicatives are formed from the cardinals: 1) by adding to them the word گُني gunā (fem. گُني dogunā, or dugunā, (whence by contraction, دُگنا dugnā, and, by elision of g, the more common دُكُنا ', two-fold; تُكُنا ', tigunā, 'threefold; خُوكُنا ', tigunā, 'threefold; مرا harā مرا double,' 'twofold: ایکبرا ekadrā, 'single; ایکبرا or dohrā, 'double,' 'twofold; تبرا ', tiharā or tihrā, 'triple,' 'threefold.'
- Rem. a. The Persian and Arabic multiplicatives are also frequently used: the construction of these is given in §§ 103, 133.
- Rem. b. The word $\lim_{n \to \infty} gun\bar{a}$ is derived from the Sanskrit guna, 'quality,' etc; the affix $\lim_{n \to \infty} har\bar{a}$ (contracted from $\lim_{n \to \infty} h\bar{a}r\bar{a}$) from the Sanskrit $v\bar{a}ra$, by elision of v, and insertion of a cuphonic h.

NUMERAL ADVERBS.

62. The numeral adverbs once, twice, thrice, etc. are expressed by adding to the cardinals the word بارا $b\bar{a}r\bar{a}$, 'time' (Sanskrit $v\bar{a}ra$), or one of the synonymous Arabic words مرتبه daf(a), مرتبه daf(a), خار daf(a) ایک بار و daf(a) مرتبه daf(a)

و بار '; ck martaba, 'once ایک مرّتبه ek daf'a or ایک دفّعه ایک دفّعه do bār, ایک مرّتبه do martaba, etc., 'twice;' تین بار 'tibārā, تین دفّعه tīn bār, تین دفّعه tīn bār, تین دفّعه tīn bār, تین دفّعه تین دفّعه الم

Rem. The same affixes (with the change of باره bārā into باره bāra) are used with the Persian cardinal numbers (§ 104).

63. Numeral adverbs showing in what order certain facts are treated, are expressed by employing the ordinals in the Formative singular: e.g. پرکلے pahle, 'firstly;' کُوسْری 'firstly;' بیسری 'tīsre, 'thirdly,' etc.; or by using the Persian ordinals; as اَوَل avval, 'firstly,' کُوم 'duwum, 'secondly,' etc. (§ 104).

FRACTIONAL NUMBERS.

64. The fractional numbers are: a) Substantives; as

(pā'o,¹) (a quarter.' ادها والله عنه sawā'ī, 'one and a quarter.' موالي نائم tihā'ī, 'a third.'

Rem. The fractional numbers of the Arabic are also of frequent occurrence: e.g. نِصْف nisf, 'a half,' ثَلُثُ suls, 'a third,' etc. (§ 134); and the Persian نِيم nīm, 'half,' is occasionally used.

b) Adjectives; as

ماره پوری paun, ماره one quarter less.' ماره هار علی منظم و paune, و منظم و paune, و منظم و paune, و منظم و paune, و منظم و paune, أو منظم و derh, 'one and a half.' منظم و arhā'ī,) 'two and a half.' دهائم و sawā, 'a quarter more.'

is derived from the Sanskrit pāda; تبائيي from the Sanskrit tṛdīyāmša; يون and يون from the S. adj. pādona; آدها from the S. arddha; أوها from the S. sapāda (sa + pāda), 'with a quarter,' ساتوها from the S. sārddha (su + arddha), 'with a half

- 65. These fractions always precede the numeral or the noun with which they are used; and the unit employed in using them is 1, from 1 to 99 inclusive; 100, from 100 to 999 inclusive, and so on: e.g. $paune\ b\bar{i}s = 20$ $paune\ b\bar{i}s = 20$ $paune\ b\bar{i}s = 20$ $paune\ sau = 100$ — $paune\ sau = 100$ 0 $paune\ sau = 100$ 0 $paune\ sau = 100$ 0 $paune\ sau = 1000$ 0 $paune\ sa$
- 960. پَوْن paun, differs from پَوْن paune, inasmuch as it is generally used with units only; as پَوْن رُوپِيَا paune rūpayā, 'a rupee minus a quarter,' i.e. 'غَ of a rupee;' پَوْن گُـز 'paun gaz, 'غَ of a yard.'

ادها adha, 'half,' is an ordinary adjective, and is used accordingly.

and پُونے sāṛhe, is used in the same manner as ماڑھے but only with numerals after 2; e.g. موا sāṛhe tin, 'three and a half;' الله sāṛhe chār, 'four and a half,' etc. Similarly ماڑھے تین مَّو sāṛhe tīn sau, 'three hundred and fifty,' etc.; and ماڑھے تین هزار sāṛhe chār sau, 'four hundred and fifty,' etc.; and ماڑھے تین هزار sāṛhe tīn hazār, 'three thousand five hundred,' and so on.

قية derh is used with units of measure, quantity, etc. (as one yard, one maund), and with the collective numerals هزار, sau, غير من hazār, etc.: e.g. قية د كنز derh gaz, 'one yard and a half;' قية من derh sau, 'one hundred and fifty;' قية هزار 'one thousand five hundred.'

aṛhāī also is used with collective numerals and nouns denoting measure, quantity, etc., which may be in the singular or the plural, as in the case of the integers:

e.g. ارهائي هزار '; aṛhāī sau, 'two hundred and fifty ارهائي سَو aṛhāī hazār, 'two thousand five hundred ;' عبر الإهائي عبر aṛhāī hazār, 'two thousand five hundred gaz, 'two yards and a half;' ارهائي رُوپِيَه "aṛhāī rūpiya, 'two rupees and a half.'

Rem. From these fractions are derived other nouns and adjectives signifying 'consisting of,' 'containing,' 'at the rate of,' etc. e.g. آيو pauwā, 'consisting of, or containing, one pā'o:' موايا sawāyā and عوية sawaiyā, 'consisting of one and a quarter,' or 'at the rate of 11; ' قيوتها 'de'orhā, 'half as much again.'

67. Other fractional numbers are: a) those which are formed from the integers, or from the fractions, adjectives or substantives; as

b) those which have a special application, and are formed by adding to the fractions $p\bar{a}o$ and adh the suffix $p\bar{a}o$ or $p\bar{a}o$ and $p\bar{a}o$ and the suffix $p\bar{a}o$ or $p\bar{a}o$, 'a quarter of any coin;' $p\bar{a}o$ adhelā, 'half a piec' $(pais\bar{a})$; paida adhela, 'half a rupec.'

18. Distinct from the system of notation noticed above is that called رقم rakam (an Arabic word signifying 'writing, or price-mark' on a thing), which is always used in recording pecuniary transactions, or computations involving weight, measure (of land), such as maunds, bīghās, etc. (as shown in the Plate adjoining). It is taken, for the most part, from the initial letters of the names of the Arabic عدد one is a contraction of the Arabic عدد

. spl-100 .1 \$ 8 "11, 2211 = 1 = 1 20 2 90 100 V 0 70 -00 10 5 6 00 000 وعي ~ 06 has 150 5 20 ન હ 160 7 7 7 ~ 40 3 47 TO 50 740 10 50 46 وعد 4010100 (00 D) 1 P 17 100 620 P 7 120 P Y bv 5 5 يت ا 75-0 V d 70 10 FO V h VV 4 معلى الا معلى 5 1 ŋ ١ ٦ 1 No D **እ** አ 0 9 100 ~) 7 4 ILLES 8 م 47 100 4 ٢ 1~) ~) 7 09 9 17 901

'adad; عددان two, of the Arabic dual, يلے 'adadān; عددان three, from the Arabic ثلاثه عالمَةِي عليَّة عامَةِي ما salāṣa, and so on (See Arabic numerals, § 129).

PERSIAN AND ARABIC CONSTRUCTIONS.

69. The Urdū borrows largely from the Persian and Arabic languages, and the words borrowed are frequently treated according to the rules of inflection peculiar to the language from which they are taken. A knowledge of some of the most important facts of Persian and Arabic inflection is therefore indispensably necessary to the student of Urdū.

PERSIAN CONSTRUCTIONS.

- 70. Gender.—There is no distinction of genders in Persian. The distinction of sex is indicated, as in English, by the use of different words; as نور سوم, نور woman; or by the aid of the words نر ماده nar, 'male,' ماده mādu, 'female;' as شير نار shere nar, 'a male tiger,' شير ماده shere mādu, 'a female tiger.'
- 71. Declension.—In the declension of nouns, the cs, with the exception of the genitive, accusative, and vocative, are formed by means of prepositions, as in English. The only cases which demand notice in connection with Urdū are the genitive and the vocative.

THE GENITIVE.

72. The 'relation of the genitive case' (قانت izāfat) is indicated by placing the determined or governing noun first, with the vowel kasra (called كَسْرِدُ إِنَّانَت the kasra of annexation) attached to its final letter; as عِلْم طِلْتَ

tibb, 'the science, or art, of medicine;' فير بغداد 'shahrë bagdād,' the city of Bagdād.' If the governing noun end in s = a, or z = i, hamza must be employed to enounce the kasra (which need not then be written, since hamza can occur in such a position for no other purpose); e.g. ملكة هند or مالحة هند malikaë hind, 'the Queen of India;' مالكة هند $m\bar{a}h\bar{i}$ ë daryā, 'the fish of the sea.' When the first, or governing word, ends in either of the long vowels $i=\bar{a}$, $i=\bar{u}$ or $i=\bar{u}$ or $i=\bar{u}$, the face of the foot of the throne;' بائت تخت $i=\bar{u}$ $i=\bar{u}$ $i=\bar{u}$, 'the face of the earth.'

Rem. a. In employing this construction in Urdū, a Hindī proper name may stand in the place of the governed noun, but the governing noun must be Persian or Arabic: e.g. شهر بريلي shuhrĕ barelī, 'the city of Barelī' (Bareilly).

Rem. b. Whatever be the sign of the $iz\bar{a}fat$, its sound in Urdū is always that of short $e(\xi)$, between the kasra and the $y\bar{a}'\xi$ majhūl.

THE VOCATIVE.

74. The vocative case may be formed as in English, by prefixing an interjection to the nominative: e.g. آي درسّت ai dost, 'O friend;' but another common way of forming it is to add the termination $1-\bar{a}$ to the nominative; as $2\bar{a} \ell l l l l l$, 'O heart;' درسّتا $\ell l l l l l l$ to friend.' If the nominative end in \bar{a} , a euplonic ℓl is inserted between it and the affix; e.g. خدایا $\ell l l l l l l l l$ خدایا $\ell l l l l l l l l$ خدایا $\ell l l l l l l l$ خدایا

THE PETRAL.

- 75. The terminations of the plural are two; namely $\bar{a}n$ for things animate, and \bar{b} $h\bar{a}$ for things inanimate: e.g. $\bar{b}n$ for things animate, and \bar{b} $h\bar{a}$ for things inanimate: e.g. $\bar{b}a$ $\bar{b}a$ $\bar{b}a$, 'a eupbearer,' pl. $\bar{b}a$, 'a time,' pl. $\bar{b}a$, 'a time,' pl. $\bar{b}a$ $\bar{b}a$, 'a year,' pl. $\bar{b}a$, 'a time,' pl. $\bar{b}a$ $\bar{b}a$, 'a year,' pl. $\bar{b}a$ $\bar{b}a$. There are exceptions however, chiefly in the use of the plural affix $h\bar{a}$ (which in Persia would appear to be now used generally to form the pl. of all nouns): e.g. $\bar{b}a$ $\bar{b}a$ $\bar{b}a$, 'lamps,' 'lamps,' 'asphā, 'horses.' If the singular end in $\bar{b}a$, this letter is changed into $\bar{b}a$ before the termination $\bar{a}a$ is added, and dropped before the addition of $\bar{b}a$: e.g. $\bar{b}a$ $\bar{b}a$
- 76. The Persian plural of nouns denoting inanimate things is also formed, in imitation of the Arabie, by the addition of the termination $i = \bar{a}t$ to the singular: e.g. dêh-āt, 'villages,' 'the country' (in contradistinction to 'the town'), from غ děh, 'a village;' يورات zewar-āt, 'ornaments,' 'jewels,' from زيرات zewar-āt,

'papers,' 'documents,' from كاغذ $k\bar{a}gaz$. If s = a be the final letter of the singular, it is changed into j before the pl. affix is added: [e.g. نامجات nāmajāt, 'letters,' from نامد nāma.

THE ADJECTIVE.

- 77. The construction of the genitive case is also that of the noun and its qualifying adjective, the adjective being generally placed after the noun: e.g. مرّد نیک murdě nek, 'a good man,' زبان شِیرِین abāně shīrīn, 'a sweet tongue.'
- 78. The adjective however often precedes the substantive, and in that ease the *izāfat* is dispensed with: e.g. nek mard, 'a good man.' But more generally in this construction, the adjective and noun together form either a determinative compound (corresponding to the Karmadhāraya of the Sanskrit); as بَحْشَنْدُهُ رَوْزُ مِنْ نَوِيس 'rakhshinda-roz, 'shining day,' خُوش نَوِيس 'khṇush navīs, 'a neat writer;' or an attributive compound (similar to the Bahacrāhi of the Sanskrit): e.g. خُوشُورَت khūb-sūrat, 'handsome-faced,' 'handsome;' خوي bad-kho, 'ill-behaved,' 'having a bad disposition;' نيكُ نَام 'nek-nām, 'having a good name,' 'celebrated.'

Comparison of Adjectives.

79. The comparative of an adjective is formed by adding to the positive the termination تر tar; the superlative, by adding تريى tarīn: e.g.

به bčh, 'good,' بهتریی bčh-tar, 'better,' بهتر bčh-tarīn, 'best,' به bad, 'bad, 'bad,' به bad-tar (or بقر bad-tarīn) (worst,' bat-tarīn) بقریس bat-tar), 'worse,'

fāzil-tar, 'more فاضِلَترِيں fāzil-tar, 'more فاضِلَتر fāzil, 'learned,' learned.'

- Rem. a. The suffixes تریس and تریس are frequently added to the Arabic superlative (§ 106); e.g. تریس aulā-tar, 'better,' أوّلي تریس (أوّلي تریس) أوّلي تریس (أوّلي تریس) superlative (§ 106); e.g. أوّلي تریس superlatives and superlatives.
- Rem. b. The suffix $1 \leftarrow \bar{a}$ adds the idea of intensiveness to the signification of an adjective; as $\frac{khwash\bar{a}}{2}$, 'very happy,' from 'happy.'

THE INFINITIVE AND VLRBAL NOUN.

- 80. Persian infinitives are of rare occurrence in $Urd\bar{u}$, but derivatives from them, as also from the verbal root, are frequently met with.
- 81. The infinitive always ends in one of the syllables دى dan or تى tan; as بيدى dīdan, 'to see;' گفتن guftan, 'to speak.'
- 82. The root (which is also the form of the singular imperative) is commonly used as a noun of action or abstract sub-tantive. To obtain the root from the infinitive, it is sufficient, occasionally, to simply drop the characteristic termination of the latter: eg. joint parwar, from joint join

VERBAL ADJECTIVES.

83. Past Participles are formed from infinitives, by changing the final ω into silent ω . They may have both an

active and a passive signification (though more commonly the latter), and may be used either as adjectives or substantives: e.g. غيده didu, 'seeing,' 'seen,' 'the eye' (from بروده 'to see'); بروده 'parwarda, 'protected,' 'a protégé.' The past participles of some neuter verbs generally have the signification of the present part.; as غقته khufta, 'sleeping,' 'asleep' (from غُفْت 'to sleep'); شايست shāyista, 'decent,' 'proper,' 'becoming' (from شايست 'to become,' 'to be worth').

84. Passive participles are of frequent occurrence in composition with nouns, forming therewith determinative compounds (like the Tatpurusha of the Sanskrit): e.g. هال sāl-khwurda, 'old in years;' هايه پرورده sāl-khwurda, 'delicately reared.' Occasionally the final s of participles ending in عادة is dropped; as وزائك آلوده zang-ālūd (= زائك آلوده), 'covered with rust,' 'rusty.'

Rem. The participle ending in & ta does not appear to be so used; but it seems probable that many words, as رُفُت 'a friend,' مُسَت 'a friend,' مُسَت 'fortune,' مُسَت 'intoxicated' (= Sanskrit मत्त), which are now used as substantives and adjectives, were originally past participles.

- 85. Active Participles, adjectives, and nouns of agency, are formed:—a) By adding to the roots of verbs the terminations:
- 1) الله \bar{a} ; as دانا من $d\bar{u}n\bar{u}$, 'knowing,' 'learned,' 'wise,' 'a sage' (from the root of دانستن 'to know'); بينا $b\bar{i}n\bar{u}$, 'seeing,' 'seer' (from بين $b\bar{i}n\bar{t}$, 'to see'); گریا 'to see'); کریا 'speaking,' 'speaker,' 'an orator' (from the root of 'to speak'); تُوَانا 'to speak'); گفتن $tuw\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, 'powerful' (from the root of 'ثوانستن 'to be able'). Participles so formed sometimes

have a passive, as well as an active, signification; e.g. پذِيرُا pazīrā, 'accepting,' and 'accepted' (from the root of پذِيرُفْتن 'to accept').

- ع) ان $-\bar{a}n$; as جویاں $joy\bar{a}n$, 'seeking,' 'seeker' (from the root of رواں; (واں to seek'); رواں taran, 'going' (from the root of بارین 'to go'); باریل $b\bar{a}r\bar{a}n$, 'raining,' 'rain' (from the root of باریدی 'to rain'); گویاں 'goyān, 'speaking,' 'speaker,' 'an orator' (from the root of گفتن 'to speak').
- 3) نده anda (or indu); as ونّده ravanda, 'going,' 'goer' (from the root of رقّنی 'to go'); کُبنّده 'to do'); خبنّده joyanda, 'seeking,' 'seeker' (from the root of جُسْتن 'to seek').
- b) By adding the root of a verb to a noun, and thus forming a determinative compound (corresponding to the Tatpurusha of the Sanskrit). The root governs the noun:
- 1) In the accusative; as کاردان kār-dān, 'knowing work,' 'skilful;' زمیندار 'zamīn-dār, 'holding or 'possessing land,' 'a landholder;' مالگذار 'māl-guzār, 'paying revenue,' 'one who pays revenue,' 'a tenant;' علبند 'na'l-band, 'fastening or fixing a shoe' (on a horse, etc.), 'a farrier.'
- 2) In the ablative; as شمشيرزن shamsher-zan, 'striking with the sword,' 'a swordsman' (from the root of زدن 'to strike').

- 3) In the locative; as تخت نشين takht-nishīn, 'sitting on a throne,' 'a king' (from the root of نشتن 'to sit'); 'subh-khez, 'rising in the early morning,' 'one who so rises,' and thence, 'a morning-thief' (from the root of خيزيدن 'to rise').
- rū-skinās, 'known by the face,' 'an acquaintance' (from the root of the passive) (from the root of شخاند 'to bestow'); شناختن 'to know,' 'to know,' etc.).
- Rem. b. In Urdū a Persian root is occasionally joined to a Hindī word, which, if it end in ā, is inflected: e.g. گَيْرِي ساز 'a watch-maker;' سوٽنے بردار 'a mace-bearer' برداشتن being the root of برداشتن 'to earry,' etc.); ناز 'one who repeatedly plays jokes,' 'a jester;' one who plies the whip,' 'a whipper.'
- و) By adding a passive participle to a noun; as جہاں jahān-dīda, 'one who has seen the world,' 'experienced;' غم خُورَده gam-khwurda, 'one who has suffered sorrow.'
- a) By adding the suffixes تار tār and عار dār to apocopated infinitives (the former to those ending in تن, and the latter to those ending in د من), and cliding the عن), and cliding the عن of the infinitive termination; e.g. خواستار (for خواست تار), 'one who makes a request,' 'a petitioner' (from خریددار to wish,' etc.); خریددار خواستن نار خواستن 'to purchaser' (from خریددار from خریدن 'to purchase').

Rem. These suffixes sometimes form adjectives with a passive signification; as گرفتار giriftār, 'taken captive,' 'captive' (from گرفتار) 'to take or seize'). They are also used to form abstract substantives (§ 97).

SUFFIXES FORMING NOUNS OF AGENCY.

- 86. Nouns of agency, and adjectives, are also formed by adding to substantives the following suffixes:
- ار (an artificer' (from دستگار' 'an handieraftsman,' 'an artificer' (from خفاکار); جفاکار $juf\bar{u}-k\bar{u}r$, 'an oppressor' (from بشگار 'oppression'); بیشکار $pesh-k\bar{u}r$, 'an assistant,' 'an agent' (from بیش 'before').
- 2) گار (from خِدْمَتْگَار as گار (from خِدْمَتْگار service'); پرهیزگار پرهیزگار پرهیزگار (abstinent,' 'a devout man' (from پرهیزگار 'abstinence'); پرهیز gunāh-gār, 'an offender,' 'a sinner' (from گناه گار (sin'); گناه گار situm-gār, 'unjust,' 'an oppressor' (from ستم پادگار 'oppression'); پادگار پرقطورتهر 'unjust,' 'a memorial,' 'a monument' (from یاد 'remembrance').

Rem. The idea of agency is sometimes not very prominent: e.g. roz-gār, 'time,' 'the world,' 'fortune' (from روزگار).

الرجي الله المنافعة بالرجي المنافعة ال

Rem. This suffix is derived from the Turkish.

5) بان bān, or وان wān, signifying 'keeping, watching, or guarding;' as باغ bāg-bān, 'a gardener' (from باغبان 'a garden'); باغ dar-bān, and دروان dar-wān, 'a gatekeeper,' 'a porter' (from گریبان 'a gate'); گریبان girebān, 'the collar of 'a garment' (lit. 'that which protects the گری or 'neck'); مرتربان mihrbān, 'benevolent,' 'affectionate,' 'kind' (lit. 'guarding or keeping مرتربان, or affection').

Rem. This suffix is occasionally attached to Hindī words also: e.g. है. हे कुंदारं-wān, or औं कुंदारं-bān (= है। कुंदारं-bān (है। केंद्रिक्ट है। 'a cart man, or carter.' The original suffix is doubtless وأن (related to the Sanskrit वन्त vant), the letters φ and φ being interchangeable.

- 87. Possessive Adjectives and substantives are formed by adding to substantives the following suffixes, denoting 'possession,' 'affection,' or 'fullness':
- 1) اور or آور awar; as زبان آور zabān-āwar, 'possessing speech,' 'eloquent' (from زبان 'speech'); وراور ; 'speech'); زور possessing strength,' 'strong,' 'an athlete' (from زور strength'); ولاور 'dil-āwar, 'possessing heart,' 'brave,' 'warlike' (from بختاور 'heart'); بخت bakht-āwar, 'fortunate' (from بخت 'fortune'). This affix is sometimes contracted

to ما $\bar{a}r$; e.g. سالار $s\bar{a}l$ - $\bar{a}r$ (lit. 'possessed of years,' 'old,' and thence,) 'a chief, or leader'; ويوار $d\bar{\imath}w$ - $\bar{a}r$, 'a wall' (lit. 'possessing a stratum, or foundation,' from داو, for بار $im\bar{a}la$, or change of vowel).

Rem. In some words the suffix ār is redundant: e.g. زنگار zang-ār (زنگای), 'rust,' also written زنگال zang-āl, the letters م and ل being interchangeable. So also دِيوال 'a wall.'

- 3) أميْدُوار ar; as أميْدُوار umed-wār, 'having hope,' 'hopeful' (from موكُوار 'hope'); سوكُوار sog-wār, 'having grief,' 'mourning,' 'afflicted' (from سوگ 'grief,' 'sorrow').
- عار (from يار (from يار (from يار); المنظم: 'fortune'); المنظم: *shahr-yār, 'possessor, or lord of the city,' 'a king' (from هوشيار); 'a king' (from هوشيار); 'sense,' 'sensible,' 'prudent' (from هوشيار) 'sense,' etc.). In a few words this suffix is contracted to يربد و.g. يالله diler, 'possessing heart,' 'bold,' 'valiant,' داور المنظمة على المنظمة المنظمة

Rem. The suffix آور or آور awar is properly (though not used as) the root of the verb آوردن to bring; and to this is related the suffix , the root of the verb بردن , the root of the verb بردن

pounded with the preposition \tilde{l} , becomes و and \tilde{l} being interchangeable. From again, by lengthening the vowel, is formed the suffix و is but another form of وار وأر .

- 5) سار sār; as شرّمْسار sharm-sār, 'bashful,' 'modest' (from 'shame').
- 6) مند mand; دانشمند danishmand, 'possessing learning, or wisdom,' 'learned,' 'wise' (from دانش 'knowledge,' etc.); دانش 'wealthy' (from دائشد 'wealthy'); مقل alcl-mand, 'sensible,' 'wise' (from عقلمند 'understanding'). This suffix sometimes takes the forms مقد amand: e.g. مند barāmand, 'fruitful,' 'fertile,' 'successful,' 'happy' (from برُومند 'fruit'); ارجُمند 'successful,' 'happy' (from برُومند); 'arjumand (and ارجُمند) arjumand), 'precious,' 'esteemed' (from ارجُمند).

Rem. مند corresponds to the Sanskrit मन्त् mant. It occasionally also takes the form وُلَد , the Sanskrit वन्त् want.

7) گين gīn; as شرَّهُ گين sharm-gīn, 'abashed,' 'bashful;' خشمَگين <u>kh</u>ishm-gīn, 'inflamed with anger,' 'irate' (from خشم 'anger'); غم عمرين ويستان 'sorrow').

Rem. The original form of آگس is آگس آ agīn, derived from the verb, and signifies 'filled.' Added to nouns it sometimes serves to express a quality, as well as to form a possessive.

8) ناک nāk; as غنبتاک gaṣub-nāk, 'inflamed with wrath,' 'enraged' (from غضب 'rage,' 'violence'); درّد dard-nak, 'painful' (from هُولْناک 'pain'); هُولْناک huul-nāk, 'terrible,' 'fearful' (from هُولْناک 'fear,' 'terror').

Rem. এটা more commonly forms adjectives of quality. It would appear to be related to the Sanskrit বৰ্ naj. It is occasionally added to verbal roots and adjectives also.

- 88. Possessive Adjectives are also formed by prefixing to a substantive:
- با با $b\bar{a}$, signifying 'possessed of,' 'according to;' as $b\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}$
- 2) عاجِب sāhib (an Arabic noun, signifying 'possessor,' 'owner'); as عاجِب دِل sāhib-dil, 'pious,' 'godly' (lit. 'possessor of the heart'); عاجِب جمال sāhib-jamāl, 'beautiful,' 'handsome' (from عاجِب 'beauty'); عاجِب sāhib-naṣīb, 'fortunate' (from نعِيب 'destiny,' 'fortune').
- 89. Negative Adjectives, denoting privation, or the absence of a quality, are formed by prefixing to a noun one of the following prepositions or adverbs, corresponding in signification to the English *un*, *in*, *dis*, *less*, etc.:
- 1) ن فور 'without' (always prefixed to substantives); as ب فور be-parwā, 'fearless,' 'careless;' ب في فو be-wafā, 'faithless.'
- 2) کم kam, 'less,' 'lacking' (prefixed to substantives); as الم بخت kam-bakht, 'luckless;' کم زور 'kam-zor, 'powerless,' 'feeble;' کم جمّت 'kam-himmat, 'spiritless,' 'unaspiring.'
- 3) ن $n\bar{a}$, 'not' (prefixed, originally, to adjectives alone, but, at the present time, to substantives also); as نا أميد $n\bar{a}$ -umed, 'hopeless,' 'despairing;' نا پاک $n\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}k$, 'unclean;' na-khwush, 'displeased;' نا اهّل $n\bar{a}$ -akh, 'unworthy.'
- 4) غَير gair, 'other,' 'different,' 'opposite' (borrowed from the Arabic, and used before substantives and adjectives); as غير حاضِر 'gair-inṣūf, 'unjust;' غير حاضِر 'gair-hāzir, 'not present,' 'absent;' غير مُمْكِي gair-mumkin, 'impossible.'

- 5) الآهر, 'not' (also borrowed from the Arabic, and prefixed chiefly to substantives, or adjectives employed as substantives); as الأجالة المتابعة المتابعة
- 90. Adjectives of Similitude are formed by adding to substantives the suffixes:
- 1) اسَّا asā, or سان sān; c.g. شيرسا sher-āsā, or شيرسا sher-sā, or شيرسان sher-sā, or مرَّدَآسا ; sher-sā, or مرَّدَآسا ; sher-sā, or مرَّدَآسا ; sher-sān, 'like a tiger,' 'tigrish ضِرِشْته سان 'firishtu-sān, 'angelic.'

Rem. The origin of these suffixes is the verb سُود , whence by pre-fixing the preposition آ , the verb آسود is derived.

2) سار sār; as خاکسار <u>kh</u>āk-sār, 'like dust,' 'humble;' مار sug-sār, 'dog-like,' 'miserly,' 'a miser.'

nem. سار affixed to substantives and adjectives is occasionally synonymous with سر 'head;' e.g. سگسار sag-sār, 'dog-headed,' 'an inhabitant of a region where the inhabitants have heads like dogs;' سبگسار sabuk-sār (سبگسر), 'light-headed,' 'unsteady,' 'foolish.'

- 3) وار (تات as بُزْرُگُوار buzurg-wār, 'like the great,' 'great,' 'excellent;' بُزْرُگُوار <u>zarra-wār</u>, 'atom-like,' 'humble.'
- 4) گان gān; as خُدايگان <u>kh</u>udā egān, 'like God' (a title of kings and great men), 'most excellent,' 'omnipotent.'

Rem. The signification of 'similitude,' in the case of both and, often passes into that of 'fitness,' 'worthiness' (see § 91, 2, 3).

5) مان mān; as آسَمان āṣmān, 'like a mill-stone' (revolving), 'heaven' (from آس 'a mill-stone').

¹ Such is the derivation of asman according to native scholars. The Zend form of the word is ashman, the Sanskrit NIHT asman.

- Rem. Is used in some Persian words with the signification of 'possessing,' but is not found in Urdū. In the word it does not signify 'possession,' as Professors Monier Williams and Dowson affirm, but is redundant. It never can signify 'possession' when joined to an adjective.
 - 6) ساهّوش wash; as ماهّوش mūh-wash, 'like the moon.'
- 7) خداوند wand; as خداوند <u>kh</u>udā-wand, 'like God,' 'lord,' 'possessor;' whence, by contraction, خاوَند, also signifying 'lord,' 'master,' 'husband.'
- 91. Adjectives denoting *fitness* or *worthiness* are formed by attaching to substantives the suffixes:
- 1) ناك āna; as شاهانه shāhāna, 'befitting a king,' 'royal,' 'splendid;' رُدانه mardāna, 'becoming a man,' 'manly.'
- Rem. a. Such is the teaching of the native grammarians; but it appears far more probable that in these words, as also in ديوانه ـ بزُرگانه and many more, the relative suffix هـ (﴿ 92, 6) is added to the plurals مردان ـ شاهال, etc.: مانه عادی و عادی مردان عادی مردان میردان م
- Rem. b. From the signification of 'fitness,' arises that of 'manner,' which is also common to this suffix, and hence its use in forming adverbs: e.g. شاهانه 'royally,' شاهانه 'in a manly manner;' غرضانه 'interestedly.'
- $g\bar{a}n$; as شاهگای $sh\bar{a}e$ - $g\bar{a}n$ (for شاهگای), 'worthy of a king;' رایگای $r\bar{a}e$ - $g\bar{a}n$ (for رایگای), 'fit to throw on the road,' a thing found on the road,' hence, 'a thing obtained, or lost, for nothing,' 'anything worthless.'
- 3) ماه wār, or واره wāra; as شاه واره shāh-wār; 'worthy of a king,' 'princely,' 'royal;' الزَّكُوار 'buzurg-wār, 'worthy of the great,' 'great,' 'excellent;' گوشواره gosh-wār, or گوشواره '

gosh-wūra, 'suitable to the ear,' 'an earring;' سَاهُوار māh-wār, or مَاهُوار māhwāra, 'adapted to a month,' 'monthly stipend,' etc., 'monthly.'

Rem. From the signification of 'fitness,' etc., arises that of 'measure,' 'quantity;' as $j\bar{a}ma-w\bar{a}r$, ('fit to make,' or) 'sufficient to make a garment' $=j\bar{a}ma-bhar$. The original form of this suffix is , corresponding to the Sanskrit and Hindī $\forall \tau$ bhar.

- 4) جَوْرُدنِي Āhṇur-danī, 'fit to eat,' 'eatable' (from خُورُدنِي 'to eat'); گَفْتنِي 'guftanī, 'fit to utter;' شُدنِي shudanı, 'fit to be.'
- 92. Relative Adjectives and Substantives are formed by adding to substantives the suffixes:
- ال الاغنال al, (used to form substantives); as چنگال $\bar{a}l$, 'a claw' (from چنگ 'bent, curved'); اله دُنْبال 'the extremity of a thing,' 'a tail' (from دُم = دُنْب 'a tail').
- 2) الله عنه فالمقال الله biyābān, 'a desert' (from بيابان 'without water'); بايان الله بقوش (of the foot), 'extremity' (from پاي 'foot'); بيشان peshan, 'the front or foremost part' (from پيشان 'before;' from پيشان is derived پيشاني peshanī, 'the forehead').

Rem. The suffix المناف المناف

3) نا – āna; as دست dast-āna, 'a glove' (from دست 'hand'); مرّدانه سعر mard-āna 'pertaining to man; کاشانه kāsh-āna, 'a glass-house,' thence generally, 'a house;' سالانه sāl-ana, 'pertaining to a year,' 'yearly.'

- على (from گرد $g\bar{a}n$; as گرد $gird \cdot g\bar{a}n$, 'a walnut' (from گرد 'round'); کو خالى $dih \cdot g\bar{a}n =$ ن خو خالى 'pertaining to a village,' 'a villager' (فرقالى is the Arabic form of the word); بازرگالى $b\bar{a}zar \cdot g\bar{a}n$ (from بازرگالى), 'a merchant.'

Rem. The suffixes اونگ and عاف are also relative, and are common in Persian, although not frequently occurring in Urdū: e.g. خداوند 'pertaining to God,' 'a lord;' خویشاوند 'pertaining, or related, to self,' 'a kinsman.' These suffixes are all no doubt derived from the Sanskrit वन् vant, nom. वान vān.

6) ه ن a; as سُتْرُ ustura, 'a razor' (from اَسْرُ the root of دَسْتُ 'to shave'); دست dustu, 'a handle' (from دست 'hand'); زبانه زبانه زبانه زبانه زبانه زبانه زبانه زمانه علامه على على على على على على على المستورية والمستورية والمستورية (from دهاله 'mouth'); دهالي roza, 'pertaining to a day' (from روزه yak-turfu, 'pertaining to one side,' 'one-sided' (from يك طرف 'one side').

Rem. The suffix غـ is sometimes redundant, as in چاره chāra, کینه kīna, چاره āwāza.

7) ت بین آn, denoting, besides relation, the material of which a thing is made; as زرین zarīn, 'golden' (from نرکین 'gold'); نگت rangīn, 'coloured' (from رنگین 'colour'); پوستین 'sangīn, 'of stone;' نمکین namakīn, 'salty;' پوستین postīn, 'a cloak or jacket made of a skin' (پوستی).

8) جي آ, forming patronymics and other relative adjectives; as پارْسي pārsī, 'of I'ersia,' 'Persian;' نامَاهُ مُنْدِي 'of India,' 'Indian;' شاهِي shāhī, 'pertaining to a king,' 'royal;' خُونِي 'khūnī, 'of fire,' 'fiery;' خُونِي 'khūnī, 'sanguinary,' 'bloody,' 'a murderer.' If the final letter of the noun be عند a, it is changed into خانگي before the suffix; e.g. خانگي للسānagī (or khāngī) 'pertaining to the house,' 'domestic.'

Rem. جي is occasionally redundant, chiefly at the end of Arabic words: e.g. إِيَادِتِي 'itikādī = أِعِتِقَالُ 'to believe firmly;' زِيَادِتِي تَابِعُ عَلَيْهُ وَالْمُعَالِّمُ عَلَيْهُ وَالْمُعَالِّمُ عَلَيْهُ وَالْمُعَالِّمُ وَالْمُعَالِّمُ وَالْمُعَالِّمُ وَالْمُعَالِّمُ وَالْمُعَالِّمُ وَالْمُعَالِّمُ وَالْمُعَالِمُ وَالْمُعَالِّمُ وَالْمُعَالِّمُ وَالْمُعَالِمُ وَالْمُعِلِّمُ وَالْمُعَالِمُ وَالْمُعَالِمُ وَالْمُعَالِمُ وَالْمُعَالِمُ وَالْمُعَالِمُ وَالْمُعَالِمُ وَالْمُعَالِمُ وَالْمُعَالِمُ وَالْمُعَالِمُ وَالْمُعِلِي وَالْمُعَالِمُ وَالْمُعَالِمُ وَالْمُعِلِّمُ وَالْمُعَالِمُ وَالْمُعِلِمُ وَالْمُعَالِمُ وَالْمُعَالِمُ وَالْمُعَالِمُ وَالْمُعَالِمُ وَالْمُعَالِمُ وَالْمُعَلِّمُ وَالْمُعَلِيْنِ وَالْمُعَلِيْنِ وَالْمُعِلِمُ وَلْمُعِلِمُ وَالْمُعِلِمُ وَالْمُعِلِمُ وَالْمُعِلِمُ وَالْمُعِلِمِ وَالْمُعِلِمُ وَالْمُعِلِمُ وَالْمُعِلِمِ وَلِمُعِلِمُ وَالْمِ

93. Adjectives denoting colour, or similitude of colour, are formed by means of the suffixes قَامِ $f\bar{a}m$, and $g\bar{u}n$, as عَلَى فَامِ $siy\bar{a}h$ - $f\bar{a}m$, 'blackish;' لَكُ فَامِ la'l- $f\bar{a}m$, 'ruby-coloured;' لله كُون gul- $g\bar{u}n$, 'rose-coloured;' لله كُون la'l- $g\bar{u}n$, 'tulip-coloured.'

Rem. فام may also take the forms وام wam, وام pam, and بام bam; and in place of كُونه the form كُونه is occasionally found.

94. Adjectives and substantives denoting fellowship, companionship, equality, etc., are formed by prefixing to a substantive the adverb ham, signifying 'together,' 'same,' and corresponding to the English 'fellow,' 'mate,'

'con-,' 'co-;' as هم درّ هه ham-dard, 'fellow-sufferer,' 'sympathetic' (from هم جنّس ; 'pain'); هم جنس ham-jins, 'of the same genus, or class,' 'congener,' 'homogeneous;' هم عُمْر 'ham-'umr, 'of the same age,' 'coeval;' هم سبق ham-sabak, 'a class-fellow' (from سبق 'a lesson').

Rem. אם may also occur as the latter part of a compound, a preposition being prefixed to it: e.g. שׁלָּה bāham, 'together,' 'along with;' bār-ham, 'upon one another,' 'confused' 'jumbled,' 'angry,' dar-ham, 'one under another,' 'higgledy-piggledy,' 'confused,' 'angry.'

- 95. Nouns of Place, or الممائي مكان asmā'ĕ makān, called also الممائي المائي غاروف asmā'ĕ makān, called so الممائي غاروف asmā'ĕ zurūf ('nouns that express the vessels which contain things'), are formed: a) by placing after a noun one of the following nouns:
- 1) الله آباد آباد آباد أَباد أَباد أَبَاد آباد أَبَاد أَبَاد آباد أَبَاد أَبْهُ أَبَاد أَبَاد أَبَاد أَبَاد أَبَاد أَبَاد أَبَاد أَبَاد أَبْهُ أَبَاد أَبَاد أَبْهُ أَنْهُ أَبْهُ أَنْهُ أَنْهُ أَنْهُ أَنْهُ أَنْهُ أَبْهُ أَبْهُ أَبْهُ أَنْهُ أَنْه
- 2) گاه (place;' as شِكَارُگاه $shik\bar{a}r$ - $g\bar{a}h$, 'hunting-ground;' عِبادت گاه ' $ib\bar{a}dat$ - $g\bar{a}h$, 'place of worship;' خواب ' $khiv\bar{a}b$ - $g\bar{a}h$, 'sleeping-place,' 'bed-chamber.'

Rem. گاه signifies 'time,' and is used to form nouns of time (الله عنه asmā'č zamān); as اسمائے زماں saḥar-gāh, 'morning' (from 'dawn'); شام shām yāh, 'eventide' (from شام 'evening').

3) خانه khūna, 'house;' as كار خانه kūr-khūna, 'a workshop;' گتُب خانه kutub-khāna, 'a library' (from گتُب خانه of گتُب خانه 'a book'); قيد خانه kujd-khūna, 'a prison' (from قيد بنانه from بحيل خانه from the English 'jail,' is also commonly used).

Rem. The words کاد ,آباد, and خانه must not be regarded as suffixes.

The construction is that of the inverted genitive (§ 73), and forms determinative compounds.

- b) By adding the following suffixes to nouns:
- 1) ستان istān (the Sanskrit सान sthāna); as گلِستان istān, 'a rose-garden;' کوهِستان koh-istān, 'a mountainous region;' ریگِستان reg-istān, 'a sandy place.' If the noun end in a vowel, the initial vowel of the suffix is dropped: e.g. بُوستان būstān, 'a place of fragrance,' 'a garden.'
- 2) گلشن shan; as گلشن gul-shan, 'a rose-bed, or rose-garden.'
- 3) نا nā, or نائیائی 'nāe; as آبنائی 'āb-nāe 'a strait;' آبنائی tang-nāe, 'a narrow place,' 'a defile,' 'a strait' (also تنگنا tangnā).

A variety of the noun of place is the noun of multitude (الله ismě kaṣrat), which designates the place where the object signified by the noun to which the suffix is added, is found in large numbers or quantities. It is formed by means of the following suffixes:

- 1) اگرار as گرار gul- $z\bar{u}r$, 'a place where roses abound,' 'a rose-garden;' غرار subza- $z\bar{u}r$, 'a place where verdure abounds,' 'a meadow;' بازار $b\bar{u}$ - $z\bar{u}r$ (contracted from ابازار, 'a place where provisions (ابازار) abound,' 'a market.'
- 2) عار sār; شاخسار shūkh-sār, 'abounding in branches,' 'a place where branchy trees abound; 'مكسار 'abounding in salt,' 'salty,' 'a salt-mine;' رُخْسار 'tukh-sār, 'the cheek,' 'the face.'
- عار (a place abounding in stone,' 'a stone-pit;' جويبار 'a stone-pit;' جويبار 'a place abounding in streams;' $zang-b\bar{u}r$, 'the country inhabited by the Ethiopians,' 'Zanguebar.'

- Rem. بار is related to the Sanskrit बार vāra, 'a multitude.' It has other significations also; e.g. a) 'permission,' 'approach to royalty,' as in مربار darbār, 'the court or levee of a prince:' b) 'time,' 'turn,' as yak-bār, 'one-time,' 'onec.' With the suffix بگبار must not be confounded the root of the verb باریدی 'to rain,' which occurs in compounds: e.g. گوهربار gauhar-bār, 'raining or scattering pearls.'
- 4) الآخ sang-lākh; as سنگلاخ sang-lākh, 'a place abounding in stone;' ديولاخ den-lākh (or de o-lākh), 'a place abounding in demons.'
- 96. Connected with the noun of place is the 'noun which is the vessel or receptacle (ظرف) of a thing,' and which is formed by means of the suffix دان dān; e.g. ممحدان namak-dān, 'a salt-cellar;' شمعدان shama-dān, 'a candle-stick;' قلمدان kalam-dān, 'a pen-case.'
- Rem. This suffix is added to Hindī nouns also, and may take the form داني; e.g. گالدان; e.g. گالدان أ $ug\bar{a}l$ - $d\bar{a}n$, (or گالدان $p\bar{\imath}k$ - $d\bar{a}n$), 'a spit-box;' $p\bar{\imath}k$ - $d\bar{a}n$ (or پیکدان $p\bar{\imath}k$ - $d\bar{a}n$ (or پیکدان $p\bar{\imath}k$ - $d\bar{a}n$), 'a spittoon'—properly, 'a vessel for receiving the $ug\bar{a}l$ or $p\bar{\imath}k$, i.e. the juice of the betel-leaf which is spit out.' Nouns (mase.) ending in \bar{a} are inflected before the affix is added: e.g. چوهد دان \hat{a} - \hat{b} - $\hat{b$
- 97. Abstract Nouns are of two kinds: a) those which denote states or acts, and are verbal, being derived from infinitives, or roots of verbs:
- 1) By dropping the final ن of infinitives; as خريد غريد خواشت 'purchase,' from خريد 'to buy;' درخواست 'adar-khwāst, 'request,' from درخواستن 'to desire or request;' فروخت 'to sell.'
- 2) By adding the suffixes تار tūr and عار dūr to apocopated infinitives; the former to those which end in تر tun,

- and the latter to those ending in دن dan; e.g. گفتار guftār, 'saying,' 'speech;' رفتار 'raftār, 'gait,' 'procedure;' دیدار 'dīdār, 'seeing,' 'sight.'
- 3) By adding to the roots of verbs the suffix خا $\tilde{a}k$; as غوراک tapak, 'agitation;' خوراک khwurak, 'food;' سوزاک 'sozak, 'inflammation,' 'strangury.'
- 4) By adding the suffix ان ān to verbal roots; as فزمان farmān, 'command' (the Sanskrit प्रमाण pramāṇa); باران bārān, 'rain.'
- 5) By adding the suffix شب ish to verbal roots; as نرورش jesh to verbal roots; as پرورش <u>khwāhish</u>, 'desire,' 'wish;' پرورش parwarish, 'nurture,' 'support;' بينش bīnish, 'seeing,' 'discernment;' مازش dānish, 'knowledge,' 'wisdom.'

Rem. This suffix often forms abstract nouns of quality also.

- 6) By adding the suffix a = a to verbal roots; as a = a to verbal roots; as a = a to verbal roots; 'tremor;' نالِش a = a 'whiteness.'
- b) Those which denote qualities: they are formed by means of the suffixes:
- 1) $l = \bar{a}$, added to adjectives; as گرما $garm\bar{a}$, 'heat,' 'summer;' سرما $sarm\bar{a}$, 'cold,' 'winter.'
- 2) جي آ, added chiefly to adjectives, primitive and verbal; as دانيي ما dostī, 'friendship;' نيكي nekī, 'goodness;' نيكي nekī, 'goodness;' عقلمتدي sufuidī, 'whiteness;' عقلمتدي 'aklidmatgārī, 'service;' غقلمتدي 'aklidmatgārī, 'service;' غقلمتدي 'wisdom.' If the final letter of a Persian adjective be عشم , it is changed into على before the termination is added; e.g. بندگي bandagī, 'service;' تازگي 'tāzagī, 'freshness;' حسيدگي chaspīdagī, 'adhesiveness,' 'attachment' (from

- خسپيده the pass. part. of پسپيدن 'to stick'); but if the adjective be an Arabie word, the final h is changed to t (or rather the original \ddot{s} t, which on account of the loss of the final vowel became s h, is restored); e.g. ويَادت $ziy\bar{u}-dat\bar{\iota}$, 'excess,' from زياده $ziy\bar{u}da$, 'more,' 'excessive.'
- 98. The Diminutive is formed by means of the following suffixes:
- 1) عند الله (used chiefly with nouns denoting animate things); as مردک الله mardak, 'a manikin,' 'a contemptible man;' الله tiflak, 'a little child;' الله aspak, 'a small horse,' 'a pony;' دستاک 'alastak, 'a small hand,' 'a tap at a door;' تشورک 'zambūrak, 'a small gun or swivel.'
- Rem. a. s being interchangeable with \ in Urdū, this suffix sometimes takes the form چ; e.g. چنگوی degchā; whence, by forming the Hindī diminutive thereof, دیگیی degchī.
- Rem. b. Diminutive forms are commonly used in Persian and Urdū to express contempt, endearment, regard, etc.
- 99. Compounds occur in great variety of forms in Persian, and many such are borrowed by the Urdū. The most important of these—the Determinative and the Attributive—have been noticed in treating of the genitive case, and the adjective (§§ 73, 78). There remains:

THE COPULATIVE COMPOUND.

This may be composed: 1) of two verbal roots or imperatives: a) either one and the same verb repeated, and the last a negative; as دارومدار $d\bar{a}r$ -ma- $d\bar{a}r$ (and دارومدار), 'hold, hold not,' 'adjustment of a dispute;' کش مکش kash-ma-kash (and کش ومکش), 'pull, pull not,' 'pulling backwards and forwards,' 'distraction,' 'tumult;' b) or of two different verbs; as دارگیر $d\bar{a}r$ - $g\bar{i}r$ (and دارگیر), 'seizing,' 'pomp,' 'tumult.'

- 2) of an apocopated infinitive and the root of the same verb; as گُنْتُ guft- $g\bar{u}$ (and گُنْتُ), 'conversation ;' جُسْت 'just- $j\bar{u}$ (and جُسْت وجُو just- $j\bar{u}$ (and جُسْت وجُو just- $j\bar{u}$ (and جُسْت وجُو
- 3) of two apocopated infinitives; as آمد رفّت āmad-raft (and آمد ورفّت), 'coming and going,' intercourse;' گُنْت 'guft o shanūd, 'speaking and hearing,' 'colloquy,' 'altercation.'
- 4) of two nouns of different signification, as پاي و پر pa'e-o-par, 'power;' or of the same signification, as جو جُو kīlo kāl, 'grain, grain,' 'grain by grain;' قيل و فال 'kīlo kāl, 'speech and response,' 'discourse.'

Rem. To this class also belong those compounds in which the last word (which is used merely to rhyme or jingle with the first) is called the عَرْج مَرْ بَ tābi' or appositive, by the native grammarians: e.g. هُرْج مَرْج مَرْج (confusion, 'tumult.'

Two words, whether the same or different, are often connected by means of the letter I, which may have the signification: a) of 'and;' e.g. کشاکش kushā-kash, 'pulling one way and the other,' 'distraction,' 'tumult;' رستاخیز 'rastā-khez, 'escaping and rising,' 'the day of resurrection;'

تگاپُر tagāpū, 'running and running,' 'diligent search,' 'bustle,' 'toil.'

- b) of close proximity; as برابر barā-bar, 'breast to breast,' 'on a level with,' 'equal;' لبالب labā-lab, 'lip to lip,' 'brimful;' دمادم damā-dam, 'moment to moment,' 'each moment,' 'continually.'
- e) totality or completeness; e.g. سراسر sarā-sar, 'from end to end,' 'throughout,' 'altogether;' سراپا sarā-pā, 'from head to foot,' 'completely.'

Rem. Similarly two members of a compound are often connected by the preposition a, ba 'to,' etc., e.g. دم بدم dam-ba-dam, 'from moment to moment,' 'each instant;' $j\bar{a}$ -ba- $j\bar{a}$, 'from place to place,' 'one place after another;' yak-ba-yak, 'one by one;' yak-ba-dast 'hand in hand,' 'from hand to hand,' 'quick,' 'prompt.'

NUMERALS.

100. The following Table gives the leading Cardinal Numbers:

	,	duwāzdah دُوَازِده	19
—	• 1	boying a aatotizaan	12
گو	2	sīzdah	13
sih	3	د chahardah	14
chahār	4	pānzdah	15
panj	.5	shānzdah	16
shush	6	عنده hafdah	17
هفت haft		، hashdah	
هشت hasht		• نوزده nūzdah	
	9	bīst	
ع dah	10	bīst-o-yak بيست ويک	
yāzdah يازده	11	bīst-o-du	

8 سِي	3 0	ه نیصد si sad	300
$= \frac{1}{chihal}$ ج $_{ m p}$	40	chahār-ṣud چهار صد	400
panjāh	* 50	pān-ṣad ياٽي	500
shaṣt	60	. shash-ṣad ششصد	600
مغّتا <i>د haftād</i>	70	منتصد haft-ṣad	700
مشتا <i>د hashtād</i>	80	. hasht-ṣad هشتعـد	800
nuvad نُوَد	90	nuh-ṣad	900
sad	100	hazār هزار	1000
. şad-o-yak صد و يك	101	دد هزار dah hāzār.	10,000
dū-ṣad دُو صد	200	lak :	100,000

ORDINAL NUMBERS.

101. The ordinal numbers are formed by adding the termination من um to the corresponding eardinals, but in the third and the ninth (optionally) the final s is changed into before the termination is added; c.g. يكم yakum, 'first;' من duwum, 'second;' من siwum, 'third,' etc.; من nuhum, or نُوم nuwum, 'ninth;' من duhum, 'tenth,' and so on. If the number lie between the decades (as بيست و دُوم bīst-o-duwum, 'twenty-second.'

DISTRIBUTIVE NUMERALS.

102. The distributives are formed, as in Hindī and Urdū, by repeating the cardinals: e.g. يك يك يك yak yak, 'one at a time,' 'singly,' 'one apiece;' مُودُو dū dū, 'two at a time,' 'by twos,' 'two apiece.'

MULTIPLICATIVES.

103. Multiplicatives are formed by adding to the cardinals: 1) the adverb چنّد chand, 'so many:' e.g. کُوچنّد

du-chand, 'twofold;' 2) the suffix ت tā; as يكنا yak-tā, 'single,' يكنا du-tā, 'double:' 3) the suffix كُوتا gāna (corresponding to the Hindī affix يكنانه gunā): e.g. يكنانه yagāna, 'single' (for يكن كانه by contraction); كُوكانه du-gāna, 'double.'

NUMERAL ADVERBS.

104. The numeral adverbs 'once,' 'twice,' etc., are expressed by adding to the cardinals the word باره bār, or باره bāra, 'time,' or one of the synonymous Arabic words نَوْبِت naubat, عَبُرار martaba, or عَنْهُ daf'a: e.g. يَكُار yak-bāra, or مُرْتِبه du-bāra, عَبُرار yak-bāra, أَوْبِار يُكُ نُوبِت yak-bāra, غُرِبار يُكُ نُوبِت du-bāra, عُرْبار du-bāra, عُرْبار du-bāra, عُرْبار du-bāra, عُرْبار du-naubat, etc., 'twice.' The adverbs 'firstly,' 'secondly,' etc., are expressed by the ordinals: e.g. يُمُ yakum, 'firstly,' عُرُمُ duwum, 'secondly,' etc.

ARABIC CONSTRUCTIONS.

105. Nearly all Arabic words are derived from some verbal root, consisting for the most part of three letters, with the help of one or more of the seven letters of augmentation (or, as they are commonly termed, servile letters) y, t, s, m, u, ū, ā, or a, which are comprised in the word yutasammanū. A large number of verbal nouns are derived from the ground form of the triliteral verb, but it is not necessary to notice more of these than occur in Urdū; the models (or, as they are technically termed, the measures) of such are given below with examples. In these measures, as in those of all the derived forms to be noticed, the letters in those of all the derived forms to be noticed, the letters with the continuous are employed to indicate radical letters, and the servile is to represent final s and of the Urdū.

ME	MEASURE. EXAMPLE.		MEASURE.		EXAMPLE.	
1.	فَعْل	katl, 'killing.'	17.	فعكال	لَّهُ أَنْ du'ā, 'praying.'	
2.	فِعْل	'ilm, 'knowing.'	18.	فَعُول	kabūl, 'accepting.'	
3.	فُعْل	hukm, 'ordering.'	19.	فغول	huṣūl, 'acquiring.'	
4.	فَعَل	talab, 'secking.'	20.	فعُلَان	بن إبنان	
5.	فِعَل	sigar, being small.	21.	فْعْلَان	'.yufrān,'forgiving غُفْران	
6.	فعكل	مُدى hudā, 'guiding aright.'	22.	فعَلَان	<u>ikh</u> afakān, 'palpi-	
7.	فَعْكَة	ralimal, 'pitying.'	23.	ا فعالة	tating.' sa'ādat, 'being	
8.	فِعْكَة	riḥlat, 'travelling.' رِحْلَت			happy.'	
9.	فغلة	. kudrat, being able فَدْرَت		· i	'kitābat, 'writing.' کِتَابِت	
10.	فَعَكَ،	harakat, 'moving.' حَرَكَت		!	'bugāyat, 'rebelling.'	
11.	فَعِلَة	sariķa, 'stealing.'	26.	فعولة	su'ābat, ' being difficult.'	
12.	فَعْلَي	da'wā, 'asserting.'	27.	فَعَلْبَة	rafàhiyat, 'being رفاهيت	
13.	فِعْلَي	zikrā, 'romembering.' فركرول	00	125.	ample.	
14.	فُعْلَي	ا - onsmra, communi			marja', 'returning.'	
15	فعَال	cating goodness.' salām, being safe.'		1	marhamat, 'pity- ing.'	
	فِعَال	kiyām, 'standing.'	30. ä	مننعد	mamlukat, 'having مملکت dominion.'	

All these forms cannot be derived from *one* verbal root; very few verbs have more than two or three, and the majority admit of but one form. Some of the measures (for example Nos. 10, 11, 18) offer very few examples in Urdū.

¹ اگری du'ā was originally اگریا (from the root دعو). In verbal nouns of the measures of Nos. 15, 16, 17, final 9 or φ is in Arabic changed into hamza (as generally happens when they follow the alif of prolongation), but the Persians and Indians drop the hamza, unless the noun is in the status constructus, and the $iz\bar{a}fat$ is used.

VERBAL ADJECTIVES.

- 106. Other important derivatives are the *verbal* adjectives. The *measures* of those which commonly occur in Urdū are:
 - the Active Participle, or Noun of Agency: e.g. فاعِل the Active Participle, or Noun of Agency: e.g. غاطِم 'to know'); علم 'to judge'); حكم hākim, 'a judge,' etc. (from حكم 'to judge'); صابِر 'to be patient'); صابِر 'to neglect', 'negligent' (from غفل 'to neglect').

Rem. If the second radical of the verbal root be $\underline{\hspace{0.1em}}$ or $\underline{\hspace{0.1em}}$, it is changed into hamza ($\underline{\hspace{0.1em}}$) in the active participle; e.g. $\underline{\hspace{0.1em}}$ $\underline{\hspace{0.1em}}$ $\underline{\hspace{0.1em}}$ $\underline{\hspace{0.1em}}$ $\underline{\hspace{0.1em}}$ $\underline{\hspace{0.1em}}$ $\underline{\hspace{0.1em}}$ $\underline{\hspace{0.1em}}$ to stand'). If the second and third radicals be identical, the second rejects its vowel and unites with the third so as to form a double letter, which is marked with $\underline{\hspace{0.1em}}$ $\underline{\hspace$

2) مَعْلُوم the Passive Participle: e.g. مَعْلُوم ma'lūm, 'known' (from منظُور 'to know'); منظُور 'scen,' 'approved' (from نظر 'to see').

Rom. If the second radical letter be , it is clided in the pass. part., but throws back its zamma upon the preceding vowelless letter: مثول 'to say'). If the second radical be , the same thing takes place, but, to indicate the clision of radical , the zamma is changed into kasra, and the servile , is in consequence changed into : e.g. مين mabī', 'sold' (from بين 'to sell'). If the third radical be , it is elided: e.g. مثور mad'ū, 'called,' 'invited' (from دعو 'to call').

a form expressing either an inherent or permanent quality, or a degree of intensity: e.g.
محکیم hakām, 'a sage' (from حکیم 'to judge,'
etc.); محیم rahām, 'very compassionate' (from رحیم 'to have mercy').

Rem. Adjectives of the three measures noticed above are commonly used as substantives also.

a form with the same signification as the preceding: e.g. صبُور 'very patient' (from غُور ; to be patient'); خُور 'to forgive').

Rem. Verbal adjectives of the measures فعيل and فعيل, derived from verbs of which the third radical is , or , are subject to the same changes as those of the form نبي . e.g. نبي nabī, 'a prophet' (from نبي).

انْعَل (5)—the measure of the noun of preeminence (انْعَل ا ismě tafzil). It has the signification of the English comparative and superlative, and is formed from verbal adjectives with three radicals, or with three radicals and a letter of prolongation : e.g. احسر، ahsan, 'more or most beautiful' (from مس hasun, 'beautiful'); aszal, 'more or most excellent' (from akbar, 'greater,' اكبر وُ fāṣil, 'excellent'); فاضِل 'greatest' (from کبیر kubīr, 'great'). measure is also used for adjectives denoting colour, or deformity, derived from neuter triliteral verbs: e.g. اصّفر almar, 'red;' اصّفر asfar, 'yellow;' اغرج 'a'raj, 'lame' (by nature); اغمىل a'mā, 'blind.'

the measure of the noun of intensiveness (مَبالغه isme mubālaga). Its signification approaches very nearly to that of the measures لله نعبل and كذّاب e.g. كذّاب kazzāb, 'a great, or habitual, liar;' كذّاب علام 'allām, 'very tyrannical;' علام 'allām, 'very learned.' The same form is commonly used for nouns which indicate professions and trades: e.g. الما في المعتبر bazzāz, 'a clothmerchant;' الما في المعتبر bakkāl, 'a greengrocer' (but, in India), 'a grain-merchant' (المعتبر المعتبر المعتب

Rem. Other adjectives of the measures وَعَالَ عَالَى اللّهُ عَالَى اللّهُ عَالَى اللّهُ اللّ

107. From triliteral roots are derived other forms of verbal nouns also, which, since two or more of the servile letters occur in them, are termed augmented infinitives (عند مزيد maṣdarĕ mazīd) by the native grammarians. It will be more convenient to speak of them as verbal nouns of the second, third, etc., derived forms. These

verbal nouns moreover have corresponding adjectives, similar to the فاعل and مفْعُول of the first or ground form of the triliteral verb." The measures of both are given below, with examples.

- a) VERBAL NOUNS OF THE DERIVED FORMS.
- فر عور المنطقة المنطق

Rem. If the third radical of the verb be or عن , it is changed into !: e.g. مُلاقات 'to meet.'

10. اِخْوا -e.g. اِنْعَال $ijr\bar{a}$, 'causing to flow' (from جري 'to flow'); اِخْواج $i\underline{k}\underline{h}r\bar{a}j$, 'causing to go out,'

'issuing' (from خرج 'to go out'); نگار inkār, 'denying' (from نگر 'not knowing or acknow-ledging').

v. تَنَعُّل -c.g. تَنَعُّل takabbur, 'making oneself great,'
'being proud' (from تَجْبِير takbīr, 'making great'); تَا نَعْبِير taṣawwur, 'picturing to oneself,'
'conceiving' (from تَحْرِير taṣwīr, 'making a picture').

Rem. If the third radical bo و or و is always changed into و, and), the influence of the ي changes the zamma of the penult syllable into kusra: e.g. سلى tasallī, 'becoming comforted' (from سلى).

vi. تناصُّب e.g. تناصُّب tanāsub, 'resembling,' 'being related' (from مُناسِب munāsabat, 'being related to'); مُناسِب takārub, 'approaching' (one another), from مُقارِب mukārabat, 'approaching.'

 words into اے; as تمنا tamannā, 'desire,' تماشا tamāshā, 'spectacle,' 'recreation,' 'fun.'

vii. اِنْفِعَال infiṣāl, 'being decided' (from اِنْفِعَال 'to decide'); اِنْفِعَال inkishāf, 'being uncovered, or revealed' (from کشف 'to open or reveal').

Rem. If the third radical be و or ي, it is changed into hamza, which however is, as usual, dropped in Urdū: e.g. إِنْطِفَا (for إِنْطِفَا), intifa, 'being extinguished' (from لنحى).

viii. اِجْتَمَاع e.g. اِفْتِعَال ijlimā', 'becoming collected,'

'assembling' (from جمع 'to collect');

'i tirāz, 'putting oneself in the way,'

'opposing' (from عرض 'to place'—before

one); عرض iḥtidār, 'becoming powerful'

(from قدر 'to make powerful,' etc.).

Rem. If the first radical letter be ت t, the characteristic ت of this form unites with it into ت; as إِنَّالَةُ أَنْ أَلِنَالُهُ 'following' (from بنا). So also, if the first radical be , it is changed into ت, which unites with the characteristic ت of the form into ت: e.g. إِنْ ittifāk, 'agrecing' (from وفق). If the first radical be a or j, the characteristic of the form is changed into a, which unites with an initial a into ت: e.g. ارْفر اللهُ أَنْ اللهُ ا

IX.—This form does not occur in Urdu.

x. اِسْتِغْعَال e.g. اِسْتِغْعَال isti'dūd, 'getting oneself ready,'

'being ready' (from عَد, the verbal noun of

the fourth form of which, viz. اِسْتِغْفَار i'dūd,

signifies 'making ready'); اِسْتِغْفَار istigfūr,

'seeking forgiveness' (from غَفْر 'to forgive').

Rem. a. The changes which take place in this form are precisely similar to those which take place in the fourth form.

Rem. b. The following brief observations will throw light on the signification of these various forms:

The second (اِفْعَال), and the fourth (اِفْعَال), are usually causative or factitive. Verbs that are intransitive in the first form become transitive in these, and those that are transitive become doubly transitive, or causative. But in some instances the two forms have different meanings: e.g. 1. علي 'ilm, 'knowing,' 'knowledge,' 11. علي 'ilm, 'knowing,' 'knowledge,' 11. إعلام 'ilam, 'informing one of a thing.'

The third (مَعْاعَلَنّه), and the sixth (تَعَاعُلُن), commonly convey the idea of reciprocity, the latter necessarily so. When the first form is transitive, the third expresses the effort or attempt to perform that act upon the object; e.g. مُعَامِلُهُ أَمْ mukātala, ('trying to kill, or) fighting with.' In the sixth form the idea of effort or attempt becomes reflexive: e.g. تجاهُل tajāhul, 'feigning ignorance.'

The fifth form (تَغَعَلُ) is the reflexive of the second; but it is more commonly used with the effective signification, implying that an act is done to a person, or a state produced in him, whether caused by another or by himself: e.g. تعلّم 'ilm, 'knowledge,' تعلّم 'tailīm, 'teaching,' ta'allum, 'becoming learned.' The idea of intensiveness (which is often found in the second form) exists in the tifth also: e.g. تغرّق tafarruk,

*separation into many groups, or in various directions.' In English this form must often be rendered by the passive.

The seventh form (إِنْفَعَالُ) is reflexive or effective in signification, and approaches nearly to the passive, by which it must often be rendered into English.

The eighth form (افتعال) is the reflexive of the first. The reflex object is either the accusative or the dative: e.g. اغتراض i'tirāz, 'putting oneself in the way,' opposing' (from عرض 'placing something before one'); اغطراب 'iṣṭṭrāb, 'moving oneself to and fro,' 'being agitated' (from غرب 'beating'); اغدار; 'being powerful,' 'power'). The reflexive signification often gives rise to the reciprocal (which this form has in common with the sixth), and occasionally passes into the rassive. In many cases too the eighth form has the same signification as the first.

The tenth form (السَّنْعَالُ) is commonly used in the sense of taking, seeking, asking for or demanding what is signified by the first: e.g. السَّعْفَارُ istigfār, 'asking forgiveness' (from غُرُ to forgive'). It also often converts the factitive signification of the fourth form into the reflexive: e.g. السَّعْدَاد isti'dād, 'getting oneself ready,' 'being prepared' (from jacilitād, 'making ready,' 'preparing').

Rem. c. The verbal nouns of the first and derived forms are commonly used as abstract substantives: e.g. عِنْم ilm, 'knowledge,' عَنْكُرُهُ tazkira, 'mention.'

b) VERBAL ADJECTIVES OF THE DERIVED FORMS.

The measures of these, with examples, are tabulated below. The difference between the form for the Active and that for the Passive Participle, consists simply in the vowel of the final syllable, the former taking kusru, and the latter futhu.

0	SURE F	EXAMPLE.	MEASURE OF PASS, PART,	EXAMPLE.
II.	منُفَعِّل	möullim, 'a teacher'	مُفَعِّلٌ أ	moʻullam, مُعلّم
		(from علم).		'taught.'
ııı.	مُنفَاعل	"muḥāfiz, 'guarding,' مُعافِظ	منفاعل	muḥāfaz,
		'custodian' (from خفظ).		'guarded.'
1 V.	وكنعل	musrif, 'squander-	إمتنعكل	muṣraf,
		ing' (from صرّف).		'squandered.'
ر. ر	ە ئىتىنىقل	mulabaddil, 'chang-		"mutabaddal مُستبدّل
		ing' (from بدل).		'changed.'
ل .۱۷	إ • ُنتفاء	"muta'ārif, 'knowing' مُتعارف	أستناعل	muta'āraf, مُتعارف
		(from عرف).		'known.'
		munkashif, 'reveal-		munkashāf,
		ing' (from كشف).		'revealed.'
viii.	منفتعل	mo'tamid, 'trusting' أعتمد	ا مفتعَل	mö'tamad,
		(from عمد).	1	'trusted.'
e. راه	أسنذ	mustakhrij, extract-	إ "سننتعار	, musta <u>lth</u> raj مُسَّاخُر ج
	1	ing' (from خرج).	1	'extracted.'

- 108. Verbs consisting of four radicals also occur in Arabic, having a ground form and three derived forms; but the first and second forms alone occur in Urdū. Employing an additional \mathcal{J} to denote the fourth radical, the measures of the *verbal nouns* of these forms are:
 - tarjama, 'interpreting,' 'translation' (from ترْجمه 'to interpret'); زلزله ; 'shaking' (from زلزل 'to shake').
 - 11. تَرَكُرُل e.g. تَنْعُلُل tazalzul, 'becoming in a state of motion,' 'being shaken' (from زُلْزل 'to shake').

109. The measures of the verbal adjectives corresponding to these nouns are:

Possessive Adjectives.

- 110. These, as used in Urdū, are properly determinative compounds, in which the first noun governs the second in the genitive. The governing noun is generally one which conveys the idea of *possession*, *origin*, etc. The following are examples of those which occur in Urdū:
- ابُو abū, or بُو bū, 'father,' 'originator,' etc.: e.g. ابُو (أبُو تُراب dusty,' from بُراب (أبُو تُراب), 'dusty,' from تُراب turāb, 'dust,' (bū turāb was the niekname given by Mohammad to his son-in-law 'Alī); بُو ٱلْعَجِب bu'l'ajūb, 'cause of wonder,' 'wonderful;' بُو ٱلْمُهُوسُ bu'l hawas, 'causing desire,' 'desirous,' 'capricious.'
- فِي بَوَةِ بَوْنِ (nom. sing. غُرُو (nom. sing. غُرُو (يَقِ بَوْنِ بَالْمِوْنِ بَوْنِ بَالْمِوْنِ بَوْنِ بَالْمِرْ بَوْنِ بَالْمِوْنِ بَوْنِ بَالْمِوْنِ بَالْمِرْ بَالْمِ بَالْمِوْنِ بَالْمِرْ بَالْمِرْ بَالْمِرْ بَالْمِرْمِ بَالْمِرْم

Rem. The form نِي نِي zī occurs most frequently in Urdū, being used

even in ordinary conversation. It is combined with Persian words also: e.g. فِي هُوشُ يَّدَ-hosh, 'sensible,' 'intelligent.'

Rem. The genitive construction is occasionally indicated by the use of the izāfat: e.g. عاجب تخت sāhibē takht, 'possessor of the throne,' 'a king.' Such is always the case when the governing nouns are ارباب arbāb (pl. of باكل arbāb (pl. of اكل arbāb (pl. of اكل arbāb (pl. of اكل عمل arbāb (pl. of الباب خرد) arbābē khurad, 'intelligent or wise persons;'

RELATIVE ADJECTIVES.

ways: a) by adding to nouns (substantives, adjectives, or pronouns) and particles the suffix — (which, in Urdū, is changed to — ī, the tashatal being dropped; but it is restored in the derivatives from the relative adjective). The suffix may often be added without any change taking place in the primitive noun: e.g. "shamā, 'solar,' from المساق 'the sun;' الساق 'insānī, 'human,' from الساق 'insainī, 'of, or relating to Hosainī, 'of, or relating to Hosainī, 'pertaining to grammar,' from الماسة, 'grammar.' In many cases however the noun undergoes some change in the auxiliary consonants, or in the vocalization, etc., before the suffix is added. In respect of these changes, so far as Urdū is concerned, the following rules may be laid down:

- 1) If the primitive noun be of the measure فَعِل, the kasra of the middle radical is changed into fatha: e.g. nulakī, from ملك 'a king.'
- 3) Final ا, من and ي are changed into , before adding the termination عن , and kusra of the preceding letter is changed into fullu: e.g. عصوي asawī, from عماني 'a staff;' وهلوي 'meaning,' وهلوي 'meaning,' وهلوي 'Dehlī.'

. Rem. If, however, the primitive noun consist of more than four letters, final الله مَصْطَفِي are rejected: e.g. مُصَطَفَى mustafī, from مُصَطَفَى 'chosen.'

b) by adding to nouns the termination بنايي; as

إن بي بي منه jismānī, 'corporeal,' from جِسْم 'body.' إن spirit.' رُوح rūḥānī, 'spiritual,' from رُوحانِي 'spirit.' نفس nafsānī, 'pertaining to the soul,' 'lustful,' from نفسانِي 'soul.' نورانِي 'nūrānī, 'luminous,' 'bright,' from نورانِي

ABSTRACT NOUNS OF QUALITY.

112. Abstract nouns of quality are formed by adding the feminine termination - at to relative adjectives, or, which amounts to the same thing, by adding the termination - iyat to nouns and particles: e.g.

insānīyat, 'humanity,' from إنْسانِي 'human.' أَنْسانِي 'human.' الْهِيْت 'divinity,' 'Godhead,' from الْهِيْت

يُفِي (from كَيْفِي haif īyat, 'quality,' from كَيْفِي (from كَيْفِي 'how?'). ماهِيّت سقمة yat, 'the what,' 'substance,' from ماهِيّت

Rem. In a few words the Aramaic termination عن مُوت ut is used to form Abstract substantives; e.g. ملكن malakūt, 'royalty,' 'the world of angels,' from ملك malak, 'a king,' and ملك malak, 'an angel;' jabarūt, 'omnipotence,' from إعالية jabhār, 'magnifying oneself.'

NOUNS OF PLACE AND TIME.

- makān o zamān) generally take the form مَنْعَل or مَنْعَل or مَنْعَل of the initial syllable مُلَّاتِ ma being characteristic: e.g. مكتب maktab, 'a place where writing is taught,' 'a school' (from مكتب maktab, 'a place where writing is taught,' 'a school' (from مدخل of egress, and ingress' (from مدخل 'to go out,' and مناله 'to go in'); خرب majlis, 'the place where, or time when, several persons sit,' 'room,' 'assembly,' 'party' (from جلس to sit'); مسجد majlid, 'a place of worship,' 'a mosque' (from مسجد 'to worship').
- in performing the act expressed by a verb are called المسائلة asmāre ālāt. They generally have the form مغفل or مغفل, and are distinguished from the nouns of place by the kasra with which the prefixed م m is pronounced: c.g. mistāh, 'a key' (from مقتل 'to open'); مقتل miskala, 'an instrument used in polishing' (from مقتل 'to polish');

I Forbes, and other grammarians after him, say that "the Abstract noun is formed by means of the feminum termination at or "yat," and give as examples the words hukumat, kinnet, kinnet, kedrat, etc. These however are infinitive nouns, or nouns of action, and though, like all verbal nouns (e.g. "ilm, "knowledge"), they may be used as abstract nouns, they are not "abstract nouns formed by means of the termination at;" this suffix can only form abstract substantives when added to relative adjectives. The other termination should be "yat, not eyat.

ميزان mīzān (for مِوْزان), 'a balance or pair of scales' (from ويزان).

THE DIMINUTIVE.

ismě tasgīr) is not of common occurrence in Urdū. It generally takes the form فَعَيْل, though one or two words take the form فَعَيْل though one or two words take the form أَعَيْل e.g. عُمِيْر buḥaira, 'a small sea,' 'a lake,' from حَسْن buḥr, 'a sea.'

GENDER.

- 116. The most usual termination by the mere addition of which to masculines (chiefly adjectives) feminines are formed, is $\ddot{s} = at$, which in Urdū is changed into s = a: e.g. الله wālida, 'mother,' from الله wālida, 'father,' ألله malika, 'queen,' from خابه malika, 'king;' عظيم kādira, from قابر kādir, 'powerful,' عظيم kādira, from قابر wālima, 'a schoolmistress,' from معلم أعلم moʻallima, 'a teacher or schoolmaster.'
- 117. Adjectives of the measure أَفَعُلُ, when they have the superlative signification, form the feminine after the measure أَكُبرُولُ : e.g. كُبْرِيلُ kubrā, from اكبر akbar, 'greatest,' albūā, from اقِلُ awwal, 'first.' But when they denote colour or deformity, the measure of the feminine is عَمْرا safrā, from عَرْجا 'safrā, from عَرْجا 'asfar, 'yellow;' عَرْجا 'arjā, from عَمْرا 'lame.'

Number.

- 118. Arabic nouns have three numbers, the singular, dual, and plural.
 - 119. The dual is formed by adding the termination

يا – ani to the singular; as كِتَابَانِ kitabani, 'two books,' from كتاب 'a book.'

- 120. The plurals are of two kinds. The one, which has only a single form, is called جمنے سالم jam'e sālim, 'the complete or entire plural,' because all the vowels and consonants of the singular are retained in it. The other, which has various forms, is called جمنے تکسیر jam'e taksīr, 'the broken plural,' because it is more or less altered from the singular by the addition or elision of consonants, or the change of vowels.
- 121. The complete, or regular plural of masculine nouns is formed by adding to the singular the termination أَوْنَ $\bar{u}na$; e.g. خَاصَ hāzirūna, from حَاضِرُ present.' That of feminine nouns by adding أَاتُ $\bar{a}tun$ to the singular, or, if the singular end in \bar{u} (\bar{u} or \bar{u}), by changing that letter into أَاتُ : e.g. مَلِكُمُ malakātun, 'possessions,' from مَلِكُمُ malakat.
- 122. The following is an example of the declension of a masculine noun.

Nom. تمان المقانية ا

Rem. The genitive singular does not occur in Urdū. The accusative, with the tanwīn, frequently occurs, but always as an adverb. The final vowel of the nominative is always dropped

123. The Urdū borrows from the Arabic, not only the various plural forms, but also its *dual*. But the terminations of the dual and the regular masculine plural are

always those of the Arabic accusative case, with the final vowels dropped: e.g. جانِبَي jānibain, 'two or both sides,' from جانِب 'side;' والاَ ين wālidain, 'father and mother,' 'parents,' from والاَ ين 'father;' ناظرين 'father;' الخرين 'beholding;' ناظر beholding;' ناظر from ناظر i 'beholding;' ناظر i 'the last.'

124. The termination $-i - \bar{a}t$, of the regular plural of feminine nouns in Arabic, with the final vowel dropped, is also used in Urdū. It may be added: 1) to verbal nouns of any measure, and either gender: c.g.

2) To verbal adjectives which are used in the plural as substantives: e.g.

'being.' كائِن 'being.' أكائِنات 'being.' مُحَلُوقات 'created.' مُحَلُوقات 'makhlūkāt, 'creatures,' مُوَجُود ('found,' 'existing.' مَوْجُود ات

occasionally added; e.g. صِفاتيس sifaten, from صِفت sifat, 'an attribute or quality.'

- 125. The *broken plurals* of the Arabic are of frequent occurrence, and are found in a variety of forms. The most important of these forms are:
- 1) اَنْعَال Singular triliterals of all forms may take this plural: e.g.

Triliterals in which the second radical (originally, or appears under the form \, restore the original radical in the plural: e.g.

A few verbal adjectives of the measures فَعِيل and فَعِيل and فَعِيل also take this form in the plural : e.g.

2) فَعُول —The singular is generally a triliteral of one of the measures فَعَل مِنْ فَعْل مِنْ فَعَل مِنْ فَعَلْ مِنْ فَعَلْ مِنْ فَعَلْ مِنْ فَعَلْ مِنْ فَعَلْ مِنْ فَعْل مِنْ فَعَلْ مِنْ فَعِلْ مِنْ فَعَلْ مِنْ فَعِلْ مِنْ فَعِلْ مِنْ فَعِلْ مِنْ فَعِلْ مِنْ فَعَلْ مِنْ فَعِلْ مِنْ فَعَلْ مِنْ فَعِلْ م

amr, 'an affair,'		umār.
'ilm, 'science,'	•	'ulum' عُلُومِ
bury, 'a tower,'		. burūj بْرُو ج
اسد asad. 'a lion,'		.usād أُسُود
malik, 'a king,'		.mulūk مُلُوك

A few verbal adjectives of the measure فاعِل may take this form of plural: e.g.

3). نعبل This form is commonly used for the plural of verbal adjectives of the measure فعيل when they apply to rational beings, and have not a passive signification, nor are derived from verbs of which the second and third radicals are identical. Some masculine adjectives of the measure فاعل (with the same restrictions as above) also take this form for the plural: c.g.

This form is commonly used for the plural of masculine adjectives of the measure فعيل, applicable to rational beings, and derived mostly from verbs of which the second and third radicals are identical, or the third radical is , or .e.g.

5) نَعْلَ _ نَعُل _ فَعْل _ تَعْل and تُعْلَة _ تَعْل may take this form of plural: e.g.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
eaub, 'a robe,' تُوب	يْياب <u>s</u> iyāð.
baḥr, 'the sea,'	biḥār.
jabal, 'a hill,'	jibāl. جِبال
رجُل rajul, 'a man,'	rijāl. رِجال
<u>المنات المائة المائة المنات المنات المائة </u>	<u>kh</u> iṣāl. خِصال
ruķu, 'a serap of paper,'	'a letter,' وقاع riķā'.

6) انْعَال This form is used for the plural of verbal adjectives of the measure فاعِل not derived from verbs of which the third radical is, or ي ; as

7) اَغُولُه —A form used for the plural of quadriliterals of which the antepenult letter is quiescent (a long vowel), especially nouns of the measures فَعَال and verbal adjectives of the measure فَعِدل derived from verbs of which the second and third radicals are identical, or the third radical is , or : e.g.

Rem. Form أَفَعَا (No. 4) is perhaps more commonly employed for the plural of adjectives of the measure فعيل.

8) فَعَاثِل This form is used for the plural of quadriliterals (all originally feminine) of which the third letter

is servile or quiescent (a long vowel), whether they have the feminine termination (:) or not: e.g.

الباهماني با المعتارية بالباهماني با المعتارية بالباهمانية باهمانية بالباهمانية بالباهمان

Rem. The form دليل is said by some grammarians to be the plural not of دليل, but of دليل; but as dalīl is feminine, its plural is very properly dalā'il. The lexicons also give غرائب 'ajā'ib, and غرائب garā'ib as the plurals of غريب 'ajīb, غريب garīb; but these are, properly speaking, the plurals of the feminine forms غريبه garība.

9) فَوَاعِل This is a common form of plural for substantives and adjectives of the measures فَاعِل and فَاعِل : c.g.

Rem. The plural of Persian nouns also sometimes takes this form; e.g. كَوْلَيْدُ kawāgiz, from كَوْلَيْدُ kāyaz, 'paper.'

This form is used for the plural of quadriliteral substantives and adjectives (final s or not being counted as a letter), the consonants of which are all.

radical, or which are formed from triliteral roots by pre-fixing 1, , or , which are treated as radical letters: e.g.

singular. Plural.

هر به العرب العر

The singulars are quinquiliteral substantives or adjectives (final s or \overline{z} not included), of which the penultimate letter is a long vowel $(\bar{a}, \bar{u}, \text{ or } \bar{\imath})$: e.g.

ه ملاطين ه المالية ال

Rem. The above forms are such as commonly occur in Urdū. Others of less frequent occurrence are:

¹ The first radical of the word $t\bar{a}r\bar{r}k\underline{h}$ is alif with hamza, and when this is preceded by fatha and followed by an alif of prolongation, it passes into $w\bar{a}'o$; hence the plural form $taw\bar{a}r\bar{r}k\underline{h}$ in lieu of $ta'\bar{a}r\bar{r}k\underline{h}$.

- b). وَعَلَ The form of the singular is generally وَعَلَ : e.g. مِكم أَنْهُ الْمُلْعَمِينِ : e.g. مِنْعُل أَنْهُ الْمُلْعِمِينِ : hikam, 'maxims,' from مِنْيَر ; siyar, 'morals,' etc., from مِنْيُر تُنْ sīrat.
- c). فَعَلَة This is used to form the plural of verbal adjectives of the measure فَاعِل denoting rational beings, and not derived from verbs having or or for the third radical: e.g. طلبه talaba, 'students,' 'pupils,' from طالب tālib; طالب jahala, 'ignorant persons,' from جاهِل
- d). فَعَلَمُ —The singulars are verbal adjectives of the form فَعَلَمُ فَاعِل صلى —The singulars are verbal adjectives of the form و denoting rational beings, and derived from verbs having و for the third radical: e.g. قاضِي kaṣāt (for وُلَيَتُ , 'judges,' from والحي wulāt (for وُلِيَت), 'governors,' from والحي walāt.
- e). فَعَالَ ـ فَعَالَ ـ الله The singulars usually have the forms فِعَالَ ـ فَعَالَ ـ فَعَالَ ـ فَعَالَ ـ وَعَالَم : e.g. غَلْمَه ; gazala, 'gazelles,' from غزال gazāl; غِلْم gazāl; فِلْم rifka, 'companions,' from وَفَيْق rafīk.
- f). أفْعُل —The singular is generally a noun of one of the measures أفْعُل وَمِنْ —The singular is generally a noun of one of the measures فَنْس e.g. فَعْل وَمَا عَلْمَ وَمُعْلَل وَمَا عَلْمُ وَمُعْلَل وَمَا عَلَى اللهِ عَلَى اللهِ عَلَى اللهُ ع
- h). فعَلَىٰ ـ The singular is generally of the measure فعَالِي , or فعَلَىٰ . e.g. فعَالِي fatāwī, 'judicial replies,' from اعْلَىٰ a'ālī, 'the upper or highest parts,' from اعْلَىٰ a'lā. Similarly اهالِي ahālī, from اعْلى ahālī, from اهْل ahī, 'people.'
- i). فَعَالِكُة —Used to form the plural of substantives and adjectives of four, five, or more letters (principally words foreign to the Arabie), of which the penultimate letter is a long vowel: e.g. مالؤكه malā'ika,

- 'angels,' from ملك malak (for مُلَّاث), 'an angel;' فلاسِفه falūsifa, 'philosophers,' from فَيْلسُوف failasūf.
- 126. From the preceding examples it is evident that one singular may have several forms of the broken plural, and even a sound or regular plural besides. In such cases, if the singular has several meanings, each of them often has a plural form peculiar to it. For example, بَنُن bait means 1) a house, 2) a verse of poetry; in the former sense the broken plural is usually buyūt, in the latter ابيات abyūt.
- 127. The broken plurals, being properly collective nouns, or singulars with a collective signification, often have regular plurals formed from them by the addition of the Arabic termination $-\bar{a}t$, or the plural terminations of the Hindī: e.g. نَيْرِتَات buyūtāt, 'families,' household expenses; 'جواجرات jawāhirāt, 'jewels:' امراؤں کو umarā'onko, 'to nobles;' حكامور يس hukkāmon-se, 'from those in authority.' For the same reason broken plurals are not necessarily of the same gender as the singulars from which they are formed; thus, of the feminine word - turaf, 'a side,' the plural اطراف atrāf is masculine, and of the masculine word قتات wakt, 'time,' the plural قتات aukāt is feminine. Moreover, in one or two instances these plurals are treated as singular in Urdū: e.g. ميرا احوال merā ahwāl, 'my circumstances, or case;' تِجارَت كَا السَّاب tijārat-kā asbāb, 'trading commodities;' آپ كا الطاف أيساهي $\bar{a}p-k\bar{u}$ all $\bar{a}f$ ais \bar{a} , 'Your majesty's kindness is (favours are) such.' The words asbāb and altāf, however, are also treated as plurals.

Rem. The usage of the two great centres of Urdū—Dehlī and Lucknow—differs somewhat in respect of these broken plurals; some

words being treated as singular in Dehlī, and plural in Lucknow. For example, the word جواهر jawāhir, is frequently used as a singular in the Bāg-o-bahār, but Lucknow authors always use it as a plural.

THE NUMERALS.

128. The Arabic numerals are occasionally used in Urdū, but rarely beyond ten or twelve.

THE CARDINAL NUMBERS.

129. The cardinals from *one* to ten are:

The numbers from eleven to nineteen are formed by prefixing the units to the ten; as احد عشر ahad 'ashar, 'eleven,' etc.

THE ORDINAL NUMBERS.

130. The ordinals from the second to the tenth take the form فاجل, the radical letters being the same as in the cardinals: e.g. ثالِث عَلَيْ الْمَانِيْ الْمَانِيْ $s\bar{a}n\bar{i}$, 'second,' ثالِث $s\bar{a}lis$, 'third,' and so on. The feminines are formed by adding the termination s—to the masculine; as ثالِنَا $s\bar{a}lis\bar{a}$, 'third;' the word آرل and however, being of the measure s, and having the superlative signification, takes for its feminine رَاقَعُلُ $s\bar{a}lis\bar{a}$ (§ 117).

131. The ordinals from the twelfth to the nineteenth inclusive are formed by adding the cardinal number غشر 'ten' to the preceding ordinals; the eleventh is formed by prefixing the word حادِي عشر to the cardinal عشر: e.g. غشر 'eleventh,' etc. $k\bar{a}d\bar{i}$ 'ashar, 'eleventh,' etc.

DISTRIBUTIVE NUMERALS.

132. Arabic Distributives are not common in $Urd\bar{u}$, and of the three measures used in Arabic, one alone is to be found; viz. غَال : e.g. ثلاث $sul\bar{u}s$, 'by threes.'

MULTIPLICATIVES.

are expressed by the Passive Participle of the second form, derived from the cardinal numbers: e.g. شقيل musannā, 'double,' 'a duplicate;' شقيل musallus, 'threefold,' 'triple,' 'three-sided;' أمرت murabba', 'fourfold,' 'square.' Single or simple is expressed by مُقْرَد mufrad, the pass. part. of the fourth form.

FRACTIONAL NUMBERS.

134. The fractions from a third up to a tenth are expressed by words of the measures فَعُلْ or فَعُلْ derived from the cardinals: e.g. ثُلُتْ suls, 'a third,' بَنْ rub', 'a fourth,' خُمْس nisf.

v. The personal pronouns (عمير zamīr).

135. The Personal Pronouns are two in number; namely \tilde{u} \tilde{u} \tilde{u} , it, and \tilde{v} \tilde{u} \tilde{u} , or \tilde{u} \tilde{u} \tilde{u} , thou; the form however, though still current in Hindī, has become obsolete in Urdū. The place of the pronoun of the third person is supplied by the Demonstrative pronouns, chiefly by the Remote Demonstrative \tilde{v} , \tilde{v} \tilde{o} h.

136. The personal pronouns present certain peculiarities of declension. The Formative singular of the first person is in mujh; that of the second itujh; the Agent and Genitive cases are generally formed from the Nominative; and the adjective affix $\[\] k\bar{a}$, which is used to form the genitive of nouns, is changed to 1, $r\bar{a}$, which in the plural has the connecting vowel \bar{a} prefixed to it. The plural Formatives are derived from the plural nominatives, by the addition of on, or, in the second person, on, hon: e.g. nom. pl. هم ham, 'we,' Form. pl. ممون hamon; nom. pl. تُم tum, 'you,' Form. pl. تُم tumhon; but the termination on is now always dropped, and the h of the termination hon is seldom used, except in the genitive, and the additional form of the dative case. This additional form ends in the singular in -c, and in the plural in -cen, which last termination is always added to the contumh. تُمي tumh.

Rem. The pronominal forms are clearly traceable to the Prākrit: eg.

have observed above, contractions of همون hamon and تُمهون tumhon. So in Prākrit we find अम्ह amha, as well as अम्हाणं amhānan, for the genitive. The dative forms _____ hamen, etc., would appear to be but varieties of the Formative.

137. The personal pronouns are thus declined:

FIRST PERSON. main, 'I.'

Ncm. هم المه main, 'I.' هم ham, 'we.'

Agent هم نے ham-ne, 'by us.'

Gen. ممارا me-rā, 'my,' 'of me.' همارا ham-ārā, 'our,' 'of us.' Form. and mujh. Dut. (مکو mujh-ko, or 'to me,' المحکو ham-ko, or 'to us,' us.' Act. (مکو mujhe, 'me.' المحکو hamen, 'to us,' us.' Mujh-se, 'from, by, me.'

ham (for هم hamoir). hum-se, 'from, by, us.'

SECOND PERSON.

Loc. تُم ميں ـ پر tujh-nci, -par, تُم ميں ـ پر tun-nci, -par 'in, in, on, me.'

تُو لَّهُ اللهِ 'thou.'

Nom. وَ اللهُ ta, 'thou.' مَا تُر نصل 'ta, 'thou.'

Agent نُونِهِ ta-ne, 'by thee.' نُونِهِ tum-ne, 'by you.'

Gen. الله te-rā 'thy,' 'of thee.' المهارا تُمهارا لله tumh-ārā, 'your,' 'of you.' Form. تُجه tujh. تُمهون tum or tumh (from تُمهون)

Abl. شجه سے tujh-se, 'from, by, تم سے tum-se, 'from, by, you.'

- Rom. a. The pronoun of the second person has no vocative case. The expression \hat{j} at $t\bar{u}$ is only heard from the lips of Englishmen, or native Christians, who have learned it from the missionaries.
- Rem. b. The forms ميرا المسقة المين المين
- Rem. c. The Formatives جُبِهُ سَهِهُمْ بَهِهُ اللهُ ا
- 138. The addition of the particle هي $h\bar{\iota}$ (pl. هبن $h\bar{\iota}h$) to the pronouns gives them greater force, or, in some way, emphasizes them : e.g. هيرا هِي $muin-h\bar{\iota}$, 'I,' هيرا هيي " $mer\bar{a}-h\bar{\iota}$, 'mine,' 'mine alone.'

vi. The demonstrative pronoun (إِنَّم إِشَارِه).

139. The Proximate Demonstrative (إشارة قريب ishāra'ĕ karīb) is يي yĕh, 'this,' nom. pl. يي yĕh, or يي ye; the

Remote Demonstrative (إشارة بعيد ishāra'ĕ ba'īd) is أن wŏh, nom. pl. وي wo, or وي we. Both are used for the pronoun of the third person, but the remote demonstrative is the one more commonly employed.

Rem. The pronoun $y\ddot{c}h$ (Hindī yah) is derived from the Sanskrit \tilde{z} ; $i\ddot{c}$ $i\ddot{c}$

140. The demonstratives are declined as follows:

Agent انیوں نے ۔ اِس نے ۔ اِس نے ۔ اِس نے ۔ اِس نے انیوں نے ۔ اِس نے ، inhon-ne, or in-ne, in-ne, 'by him,' etc. 'by thee,' etc.

Gen. النَّا $is - k\bar{a}$, 'of this,' his,' etc. النَّا $in - k\bar{a}$, 'of these,' 'their,' etc.

Dat. and Acc. (المنكو - * إلى المنكو - * إلى المنك

Abl. الله ناه is-se, 'from, with, الله in-se, 'from these,' etc. by, this,' etc.

I.oc. إن ميں ـ پر is-men, -par, إن ميں ـ پر in-men, -par, 'in, on, 'in, on, this,' etc.

SINGULAR.

141. The forms marked with an asterisk can only be used when the demonstratives are employed as personal pronouns. As adjectives the demonstratives cannot be said to take any postpositions after them beyond those which are added to the substantives they define; in other words, they have but two forms, the Nominative and the إس آدمي كو Formative: e.g. أس آدمي كو us admī-ko, 'to that man,' إس is kitāb men, 'in this book.' As adjectives كتاب مين moreover the demonstratives may also take the various nominative forms in the accusative: e.g. یه بات سُنگر yeh bat sunkar, 'having heard this matter.' As regards the inhon and unhon, it may اُنج inhon أنج inhon أنج الله إلله be observed that modern usage restricts the shorter forms to the Dative ending in ير en and the longer to the Agent case. The forms in and un of the singular Agent are obtained by assimilating the s of أس is and us to the n of the postposition ightharpoonup ne, and must not be confounded with the plural Formatives in and un, which may be used

in polite speech in any case of the singular in place of is and us; but where marked respect is to be indicated, the forms أنبون ني inhon and unhon-ng are employed for the third person singular in the Agent case.

- Rem. a. Forms now obsolete or rare are: a) ون wis and ون win, as the Formatives of so, in place of أُسك تَئِيس (iske ta'īn and uske ta'īn, etc., for the dative and accusative of both pronouns.
- Rem. b. The Formatives of s_{j} with are commonly written (pronounced however us, un), in order to distinguish them from the Formatives of $y \in y \in h$, as, in the absence of vowel points, the two are likely to be confounded.
- Rem. c. The plural forms , and are preferred by the Musalmans of Northern India, and Urdū scholars generally, to the Hindī forms ye and ey we.
- - 143. Like the demonstrative $4 y \tilde{e}h$ are declined:

VII. THE RELATIVE PRONOUN (إِسْمِ مَوْسُول).

jo or جُون juun, 'who,' 'which,' 'what,' 'he who,' etc.

Singular.

Nom. جو or jo or jaun.

Form. جنه (and, for the Agent, جنه , جنه * jis (and, for the Agent, جنه * jin).

or jinhon.

Rem. The repetition of the relative pronoun gives it an indefinite, or a distributive signification: e.g. $\neq jo\ jo$, whatever, Formative $jis\ jis$.

PLURAL

Nom. سو or تونى so or taun. تونى so or taun. الله so or taun. آونى so or taun. Form. تنج tis (and, for the Agent, تنج , or بتنج tin). tinhon.

Rem. The correlative generally accompanies the relative as its complement; as بحو چڙهيئا سو گريئا so gireyā, 'he who climbs will fall' (lit. 'whoever climbs, he will fall'). Modern usage prefers the pronoun عنو so in the place of the correlative. When the relative is repeated, so also is the correlative.

Nom. کون kaun. کون kaun. کون kaun. کون kaun. خون kaun. جکنهون *, منهون *, منهون *, منهون *, kin, kinh, or kinhoi.

Rem. a. The forms marked with an asterisk cannot be employed when these pronouns are used as adjectives. In poetry, the interrogative, when used adjectively, occasionally employs the nominative (...,) for the Formative.

Rem. b. The pronoun جو = the Prākrit जो jo, = Sanskrit यः yah; jaun = P. जं jam (the acc. of jo); سو so = P. सो so; تُون taun = P. तं tam (the acc. of so). Similarly كُون kaun = कं kam, the acc. of the Sanskrit किम kim. The Formatives are the Prākrit genitives with the feminine bases, i.e. with the vowel a changed to i: e.g. جِس jis = P. gen. sing. जस्स jassa = S. यस्य yasya; jin = P. gen. pl. जार्ष janam.

144. The interrogative کول kaun is applicable to both persons and things. A second interrogative pronoun کی kyū, 'what?' is applicable to things only. It has no plural: in the singular it is declined as follows:

کیا $ky\bar{a}$, 'what?'

Nom. کا kyā.

Formative & kahe.

The Formative کاهے $k\bar{a}he$ however is now rarely used, except in the genitive and dative cases, the Formative λkis of the interrogative کاهے $\lambda kaun$ being generally used instead. The genitive کاهے کا $\lambda k\bar{a}he$ - $\lambda k\bar{a}$ has the signification of 'of what (thing, or material?),' which however is more generally expressed by کسے $\lambda kis ch\bar{u}z$ - $\lambda k\bar{a}$. The dative $\lambda k\bar{a}he$ - λko always signifies, 'for what?' 'why?' and even this is more commonly expressed in Urdū by the interrogative adverbs λkis - λkis -

Rem. a. Like the English 'what,' کیا کرتا هی kyā may be used to express indignation, surprise, etc.; e.g. کیا کرتا هی kyā jawān-mardī, 'what valour or generosity!' In some instances it has the signification of 'how;' as کیا خوب kyā khāb, 'how excellent!' It may also be repeated, as is the English 'what,' to connect centences, or to convey a partitive signification. (See Syntax.)

Rem. b. The interrogative کیا $ky\bar{a}^{\bullet}$ (for $ki\bar{a}$) is derived from the Sanskrit किम kim: the form کاهے $k\bar{a}he$ is properly the Formative of the Hindī interrogative कहा $kah\bar{a}$, 'what?' which would appear to be derived from the Sanskrit क: kah.

X. THE INDEFINITE PRONOUNS (اسمائے تنگیر).

- 145. The Indefinite pronouns are of two kinds, simple and compound. The simple indefinite pronouns are $k\bar{v}\bar{v}$, 'some one,' 'some,' 'any,' 'a certain,' and $k\bar{v}\bar{v}$, 'some,' 'something,' 'any,' 'a few,' etc.
- 146. The pronoun کوئي ko'ī, is declined in the singular only; thus—

Sing. Nom. کوئی $ko'\bar{\imath}$, 'some,' etc. Formative کسي $kis\bar{\imath}$, or کوئي $kis\bar{\imath}\iota$.

The Formative کِسُو $kis\bar{u}$, however, is not so generally used at the present time as کِسی $kis\bar{\imath}$, which is applied to things as well as persons: e.g. کِسِی کِتاب میں $kis\bar{\imath}$ $kil\bar{\imath}ab$ -men, 'in some book.'

The pronoun kuchh is indeclinable.

- Rem. b. In poetry the Formative of کوئی کوئی من as an adjective is occasionally identical with the nominative: e.g. مُعنی سے مست جی کو سے چی کو جاونگا شیخی سے مست جی کا مسن مُسافِر هُوں کوئی دِن کو چلا جاونگا سناً se mat jī-ko lugā'o ki nahīn rahne-kā; main musāfir hūn, ko'ī din-ko chalā-jā'ūngā, 'Set not your heart on me' (lit. 'unite not your soul with me'); 'I shall not stay; I am a traveller, some day I shall depart.'
- 147. Emphatic forms of these pronouns are obtained:

 1) by repeating them: e.g. کوئی کوئی $ko'\bar{\imath}$ $ko'\bar{\imath}$, 'a very few,' 'some few;' خجه گجه گجه گجه الله kuchh, 'somewhat,' 'a very little:' 2) by combining them with the pronominal adjective ایک ke: e.g. کوئی ایک $ko'\bar{\imath}$ ek, or ایک کوئی ek $ko'\bar{\imath}$, 'some one,' 'a few;' کجه ایک kchh ek, 'some little,'

Rem. The phrase کُچ کا کُچ kuchh-kā kuchh is used to signify 'something very or quite different.'

نېيى nahīn after the simple indefinite pronouns we have كوئي ko'ī nahīn, 'it is, or there is, no one or nobody,' نېيى kuchh nahīn, 'it is nothing.'

149. Compound indefinite pronouns are commonly formed by combining the simple indefinites with the relative بجو jo, or one of the pronominal adjectives أور aur, 'other,' جو dūsrā, 'other,' صب sab, 'all,' خوسرا har, 'every.'

The compounds with کوئی $ko'\bar{\imath}$ are declinable: e.g.

The compounds with tuchh are indeclinable. Examples are:

XI. THE REFLEXIVE PRONOUN.

150. The Reflexive pronoun is $\bar{a}p$, 'self,' 'myself,' 'himself,' 'I myself,' etc. It has but one form for the singular and plural, and is declined as follows:

151. Besides the Formative آپ $\bar{a}p$, the form آپ $\bar{a}pas$ also occurs, but only in the genitive and locative plural: e.g. اَبِس کا $\bar{a}pas-k\bar{a}$, 'of, or pertaining to, ourselves, yourselves, or themselves;' آپس مین $\bar{a}pas-meh$, 'among ourselves,' etc. The use of one or other of the personal pronouns depends on the context.

Rem. The Persian reflexive pronoun خود khwud, is also commonly used in Urdū. Unlike آب āp, however, it is generally used with the personal and demonstrative pronouns alone: e.g. مَيْن خُود main khwud, 'I myself;' وي خُود we khwud, 'they themselves.' To

express the signification of the ablative عن قَهِ مَهِ اللهِ عَلَى عَهِ عَهِ (or the phrase مَا اللهِ عَهِ اللهِ عَمْ اللهِ عَهِ اللهِ عَهِ اللهِ عَمْ اللهُ عَمْ اللهِ عَمْ اللهِ عَمْ اللهِ عَمْ اللهِ عَمْ اللهُ عَمْ الللهُ عَمْ اللهُ عَمْ اللهُ عَمْ الللهُ عَمْ اللهُ عَمْ الللهُ عَمْ الللهُ عَمْ الللهُ عَمْ الللهُ عَمْ الللهُ عَمْ الللهُ عَمْ اللللهُ عَمْ الللهُ عَمْ الللهُ عَمْ الللللهُ عَم

152. $\bar{a}p$ is also very commonly used as the *pronomen reverentice*, in both the second and the third person. When so used it is declined as follows:

NOM. SING. FORM. SING. $\bar{a}p$, 'your honour,' 'his honour.' $\bar{a}p$.

Thus it differs from the reflexive by taking for its genitive the form آپکر $\bar{a}p-k\bar{a}$, and for its dative the form آپکر $\bar{a}p-k\bar{a}$ alone. Like the English 'you,' though used in the singular, it is treated as a plural: c.g. آپ امبر هَبَّ $\bar{a}p$ amīr hain, 'your honour is (lit. are) a great man,' or 'you are a great man,' if $\bar{a}p$ farmāte hain, 'his honour says' (lit. 'say').

 of this slave,' and a wife is spoken of as قبرك إلا kabīla, 'family,' فبرك ghar-ke ādmī, 'the household or family,' etc.

XII. RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS.

153. Reciprocal pronouns have no special form in Urdū. Reciprocity of feeling or action is expressed, as in English, by combining the pronominal adjectives ايك دُوسَرا ek, 'one,' and ايك دُوسَرا dūsrā, 'another:' e.g. Nom. ايك دُوسَرا ek dūsrā, 'each other,' 'one another,' Formative

154. The Possessive pronouns are the genitive cases of the personal, demonstrative, relative, interrogative, and reflexive pronouns: *e.g.*

These are all declined like other adjectives ending in \bar{a} ; e.g. mase. میری merā, fem. میری merī; Form. sing. mase. میری mere, Nom. and Form. pl. mase. میری mere. The pronoun میری apnā however is more commonly used as a substitute for the possessive pronouns merā, terā, and uskā than as a distinct reflexive adjective, and when so used it always refers to the principal subject, whether this be expressed or understood: e.g. اینا سبق سُنا apnā sabak sunā, 'repeat thy lesson,' (lit. 'cause me to, or let me, hear thy lesson');

مَنِّى نِهِ الْهَا كَبُورًا بِيأْجِا main-ne apnā ghorā benchā, 'I have sold my horse' (lit. 'my horse has been sold by me').

Rem. The genitive of the adjective بن nij, 'own,' is also used in Urdū as a reflexive adjective: e.g. ميرا نجيا هاتهي merā nij-kā hāthī, 'my own elephant'

XIV. PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

155. Under this head may be classed such adjectives as partake more or less of the nature of pronouns. They are of two kinds; *primitive* and *derivative*. The primitive are:

مُوسَرا As adjectives they are all (with the exception of مُوسَرا dūsrā and فُلانا fulānā) indeclinable; but as nouns they are (with the exception of دونوس ek, كئي donon, كئي kai, and دونوس aur, Forma-le, bai) declined in the plural: e.g. Nom. pl. عند aur, Formative عسب sab generally aspirates the b in the Formative: e.g. عسبوس sabhon.

مونوں dūsrā, and ایک dūsrā, and کونوں dūsrā, and ایک dūsrā, and کونوں donon has been given in treating of the numeral adjectives; ببُت bahut = Sanskrit बड़ bahu(२); سب sab = S. सर्व sarva; کلی ka'ī and کلی له الله عنون ba'a' بیض fulān, فلانه fulāna, فلانه ba'a' بیض ba'a' بیض fulāna, فلانه kai = S. कित kati; فلانه ba' بیض ba' بیض fulāna, کلی fulāna, منا کله kull are borrowed from the Arabic; چند chand from the Persian.

156. The derivatives are such adjectives as are formed from the original pronominal bases by means of the terminations \bar{v} $tt\bar{a}$, \bar{v} $tn\bar{a}$, and \bar{v} $s\bar{a}$, the first two being used to form pronominal adjectives denoting measure or quantity, and the last such as denote kind or similitude. A long vowel in the base is shortened before the terminations $tt\bar{a}$ and $tn\bar{a}$ are added, and a short vowel in the base is lengthened to e or ai (in Urdū generally to ai) before the termination $s\bar{a}$ is added: e.g.

PRONOMINAL BASES.	ADJECTIVES OF QUANTITY.	ADJECTIVES OF KIND, ETC.
ī, i or č.	ן ittā (čttā), 'this 'this 'tinā (čtnā), 'much.'	أيسا أ aisā, 'of this kind,' 'like this,' 'such.'
ū or wa.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \left\ \vec{v} \right\ utt\bar{a}, \\ \left\ utn\bar{a}, \\ \end{array} \right\} \right\}$ that much.'	waisā, 'ofthatkind,' وَيُسا ' like that.'
ji (fem. of ja ,	ر جتّا) jittā (jěttā),) 'as	jaisā, 'of which
the base of jo).	jitnā (jčtnā),) much.'	kind,' 'like which.'
ti (fem. of the	(لقَّة tittā (tčttā),) 'so	taisā, 'of what kind,'
base of so).	(titnā (tčtnā),) much.'	'like that.'
$\it ki$ (fem. of	(List kittā (kčttā),) 'how	kaisā, 'of what
base of ka).	ل كِتْمَا لِ kitnā (kètnā), much.'	kind?' 'like what?'

Rem. Although these pronominal adjectives may be conveniently described as formed in the manner mentioned above, there can be little doubt of their being really modifications of Prākrit forms: e.g. لَمُ kittā, = Prākrit कित्त këttia = Sanskrit कियत kiyat: in بالمن kitnā the second t is, perhaps for the sake of cuphony, changed into n. Similarly aisā = P. प्राप्त čriso = %. देह्य ūdriša; ايسا kāriso = S. किह्य kūdriša. By the clision of the syllable ri in the Prākrit forms, are obtained the common Hindī forms esā and kesā, the short vowel ĕ of the Prākrit being lengthened.

CHAPTER III.

THE VERB (فِعَل).

- 157. The Urdū verbs may be conveniently divided into the two classes of Transitive (نَعْلُ مُتَعَدِّي أَوْ الْا muta'addī, 'the verb that passes on' to an object), and Intransitive (בَعْلُ الْوَ اللهُ ا
- 158. Transitive verbs have two Voices, viz. the Active and the Passive. The other verbal forms, such as Mood, etc., it will be more convenient to notice after we have spoken of the nouns and adjectives which are derived from the verbal root.
- 159. The root or crude form of a verb is found in the second person singular of the Imperative. It is in many cases used as an abstract verbal noun.
 - 160. The verbal nouns are two in number:—
 - 1). The Infinitive or Gerund (مصدر),

which is formed by adding to the verbal root the termination valiantial naive valiantial valiantial valiantial valiantial valiantial

Dictionaries, so that the verbal root may always be known by dropping the termination $\cup n\bar{a}$.

Rem. In most instances the infinitive is, no doubt, the Sanskrit verbal noun ending in ana, modified, it may be, by the laws of transformation obtaining in the Prākrits. At the same time it is evident that the Sanskrit affix ana alone has been borrowed, and changed to $n\bar{a}$; for we find it joined to Persian and Arabic verbal nouns, and occasionally to other nouns and adjectives: e.g. نجريد kharād-nā, 'to purchase' (from the Persian بدينا); نجريد badal-nā, 'to change or exchange' (from the Arabic كريدان); يانانا garmā-nā, 'to get warm or heated' (from يانيانا pānī, 'hot'); لابدل paniyā-nā, 'to water,' 'to irrigate' (from يانيانا pānī, 'water'). It may be observed also that the Sanskrit verbal noun, with the final vowel dropped, is occasionally employed in Urdū (in Hindī frequently) as an abstract noun: e.g. 'chalan, 'going,' 'gait,' 'conduct,' etc.

which is also a Future Active Participle. It is formed by adding to the *inflected* infinitive, the termination \mathbb{W} , $w\bar{a}l\bar{a}$: e.g. \mathbb{W} chal-ne-w $\bar{a}l\bar{a}$, 'mover,' 'goer,' and, 'about to move or go.'

Rem. Instead of wala, the affix also har or all hara is occasionally used, but more commonly in Hindī than in Urdū. In the former of these dialects it is also frequently added to the Sanskrit form of the verbal noun; as maran-har, 'about to die,' or 'one who is about to die.' The affix wala corresponds to the Sanskrit aa vala; bara, to the Sanskrit aa vala; bara, to the Sanskrit aa vala; is first changed to bara, and thence, by elision of bara.

The noun of agency is declined like other adjectives ending in \bar{a} (§ 45).

- 161. The infinitive as a gerund is used in the singular only, and is declined like masculine nouns ending in $1 = \bar{a}$ (§ 42). But it is also frequently used as a *gerundive*, and then agrees with its substantive in gender and number.
- 162. The Participles are *three* in number; namely the Imperfect, Perfect, and Past Conjunctive. They are all derived from the verbal root.
 - 163. THE IMPERFECT PARTICIPLE (إِنَّمِ حَالِيَهُ),

is formed by adding to the root the termination $\forall t\bar{a}$; as $chal - t\bar{a}$, 'moving,' 'going.'

164. The addition to the participle of the word موا (the perfect participle of the verb عن ho-nā, 'to be or become'), gives it an active or progressive form, and more of the character of an adjective; as المن المان عن المان عن

Rem. The affix U $t\bar{a}$ corresponds to the affix স্থান at of the Sanskrit present participle. In Hindī the termination is at (strictly speaking, perhaps, atu, but the final vowel is never heard in pronunciation): e.g. বৰন chalat = L $chal-t\bar{a}$.

165. THE PERFECT PARTICIPLE

is formed by adding to the verbal root the termination $1 = \bar{a}$: in its formation the following rules are to be observed:

1) If the root ends in a consonant, the termination is in most cases added without any change being made; as جلا chal- \bar{a} , 'moved or gone.' But if the root consist of two short syllables, the vowel of the last being fatha, this vowel is generally elided in the participle: e.g. ندّ badl- \bar{a} , 'exchanged,' from نكل badal; نكل nikl- \bar{a} , 'come out,' from نكل nikal (see § 34, Rem. c.).

- 2) If the root end in one of the vowels $1 = \bar{a}$ or 0, a euphonic y is inserted between it and the termination; as 0, which is 0, which is 0, as 0, which is 0, which is 0, and 0, and 0, are 0, and 0, are 0, and 0, are 0, are 0, are 0, and 0, are 0, are 0, are 0, are 0, and 0, are 0, are 0, are 0, and 0, are 0, and 0, are 0, are 0, are 0, are 0, and 0, are 0, a
- 3) If the final letter of the root be the vowel $\underline{z} = \overline{i}$, the fatha of the termination (14) changes the letter of prolongation \underline{z} into the consonant y: e.g. \underline{v} \underline{v} \underline{v} \underline{v} \underline{v} , 'drunk' (root \underline{v}).

166. The following participles are irregular:

PERF. PART.	INI INITIVE.	
يَيا kiyā, 'done.'	کرنا kar - $n\bar{a}$, 'to do.'	
وَيَا diyā, 'given.'	e-nā, 'to give.'	
لَيْ liyā, 'taken.'	le-nā, 'to take.'	
mū'ā, 'dead.'	mar-nā, 'to die.'	
gayā, 'gone.'	ال برق jā-nā, 'to go.'	
أهُوا hū'ā, 'been or become.'	مونا ho-nā, 'to be,' etc.	

But the forms ל karā, 'done,' and ישמה marā, 'dead,' are also occasionally used; and the form בו jāŋā is that invariably used in compounds, such as ישׁ בּוֹשׁ בְּעוֹשׁ /jāŋā karnā, 'to go habitually or constantly,' בו בּוֹשׁ בִּוֹשׁ בִּיִּשׁ בִּוֹשׁ בִּוֹשׁ בִּיִּיִּיִּשְׁ בִּוֹשׁ בִּיִּשׁׁ בִּוֹשְׁ בִּוֹשְׁ בִּוֹשְׁ בִּוֹשׁׁ בִּיִּשְׁ בִּוֹשְׁ בִּיִּים בְּעִּשְׁ בִּוֹשְׁ בִּיִּשְׁ בִּיִּשְׁ בִּעִּׁ בְּעִׁ בְּעִּים בְּעִּים בְּעִּים בְּעִּים בְּעִים בְּעִּבְּעִּים בְּעִּים בּעִּבְּים בּעִּים בּיִּים בּּעִּים בּעִּים בּיּעִים בּּעִּים בּעִּים בּעִּים בּעִּים בּיִּים בּּעִּים בּיִּים בּיִּים בּיִּים בּיִּים בּיִּים בּיִּים בּיִּים בּיִּים בּיִּים בְּיִּים בְּיִים בְּיִים בְּיִים בְּיִּבְּיִים בְּיִּים בְּיִּים בְּיִים בְּיִים בְּיִים בְּיִּים בְּיִים בְּיִים בְּיִּים בּיִּים בְּיִים בְּיִּים בְּיִים בְּיִיבְּיִים בְּיִּים בְּיִּים בְּיִּים בְּיִּים בְּיִּים בְּיִּים בְּיִּים בְּיבִּים בְּיבִּים בְּיִּים בְּיִּים בְּיִּים בְּיבִּים בְּיבִּים בְּיבִּים בְּיבִּים בְּיבְּיבִּים בְּיבְּים בְּיבִּים בְּיבְּים בְּיבִּים בְּיבְּיבְּים בְּיבִּים בְּיבִּים בְּיבְּיבִּים בְּיבִּים בְּיבְּיבְּיבְּיבְּי

Rem. It is incorrect to say that "the words $karn\bar{a}$ and $kiy\bar{a}$ are derived from kar and $k\bar{\imath}$, two different forms of the Sanskrit root kri, and the words $marn\bar{a}$ and $m\bar{u}'\bar{a}$, from mar and $m\bar{u}$, two different forms of the Sanskrit root mri," etc.; for there can be little doubt that though

167. The addition of the participle $k\bar{\nu}$ $k\bar{\nu}\bar{\nu}$ to another perf. part. adds to the completeness of the act or state, if the verb be intransitive, and converts it into a passive, participle ($l_{loop} = l_{loop} = l_{loop}$

Rem. The imperfect and perfect participles, when compounded with $h\bar{u}'\bar{a}$, may also be used as nouns: e.g. میرا دِیَا خُوا merā diyā $h\bar{u}'\bar{a}$ (and, elliptically, مبرا دِیَا $mer\bar{a}$ diyā), 'what has been given by (lit. of) me,' 'my giving or gift.'

168. The imperfect and perfect participles are declined like other adjectives ending in $l = \bar{a}$, with a slight difference in the feminine plural, which takes a contracted form of the nom. pl. of feminine nouns ending in \bar{i} : e.g.

MASC	MASCULINE.		FEMININE.	
Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.	
Nominative $\downarrow \Rightarrow chal\bar{a}$,	چلے chale.	چلي chalī,	جلِس chalīn.	
Formative chale,	چلے chale.	, chalī چلِي ا	جلِيں chalīn.	

But the euphonic y of such perfect participles as $l\bar{u}y\bar{a}$, $soy\bar{a}$, is generally dropped in all the inflected forms:

e.g. لائي $l\bar{u}e$, سوئيس $so\bar{i}n$. The same change takes place in the inflected mase, forms of such participles as پيا مانه $j\bar{u}$, لائي $diy\bar{u}:e.g.$ لائي $p\bar{i}'e$; but in the feminine the two long vowels \bar{i} , \bar{i} , are generally contracted into one; as پي $p\bar{i}$ for کيئي $p\bar{i}'\bar{i}$; کيئي $k\bar{i}'\bar{i}$.

169. In the compound participles formed with $\hbar \bar{u}'\bar{a}$, both parts of the compound are inflected in the same way, but the plural termination of the feminine is usually added to the last, $\hbar a \ln c : e.g.$ $\hbar a \ln c : e.g.$ $\hbar a \ln c : e.g.$

Rem. As the plural is obvious from the termination of the last part of the compound, the addition of the same termination to the first part also is unnecessary, and is now rarely made. We occasionally meet with the full plural termination an, as chaliyan, but current usage is averse to the form.

170. The addition of the emphatic particle $k\bar{l}$ to the locative of the imperfect participle (with the postposition suppressed), gives it the force of an adverb: e.g. $k\bar{l}$ challe- $k\bar{l}$, 'in the very act, or on the instant, of moving.'

The Past Conjunctive Participle (ماضِي معْطُوف).

171. This participle, which is indeclinable, may take the form: 1) Of the simple root; as chal, 'having moved or gone; 2) of the root with the addition of one of the affixes c-e, or c-e (c-e) is c-e, or c-e) is c-e (which are themselves past conj. part. of the verb c-e); as c-e (which are themselves past conj. part. of the verb c-e); as c-e (c-e) is c-e); as c-e (c-e) is c-e) is c-e (c-e). The affix e is seldom or never employed; c-e and c-e are those most frequently used.

Rem. a. We occasionally meet with the form کرکر kar-kar, as کرکر chal-kar-kar; this, however. is now generally condemned as barbarous.

Rem. b. The conjunctive participle of the verb $\bigcup \overline{1}$ $\overline{a}n\overline{a}$, 'to come,' takes the forms $\overline{1}$ $\overline{a}n$, $\overline{1}$ $\overline{a}n$, etc., besides the regular forms $\overline{1}$ \overline{a} , $\overline{1}$ $\overline{a}kar$, etc.

Rem. c. The affixes e and ke both spring from the Prākrit form ia of the Sanskrit affix jn, which is used to form indeclinable past participles: ia transposed = ai = e; in the case of ke, however, ia is first changed to ja, je (the form current in Sindhī), and j is then changed to k. In the first or root form of the participle the affix e is dropped.

GENDER, NUMBER, PELSON.

172. The Urd \bar{u} verb has *two* genders, the masculine and feminine; *two* numbers, the singular and plural; and three persons in each number.

173. There are three moods; namely the Indicative, Imperative, and Subjunctive or Conditional, which is also the Optative. The Indicative and Subjunctive will be noticed in connection with the tenses.

174. The second person singular of the Imperative is, as has already been observed, the root or crude form of the verb. The second person plural is formed by adding to the singular the termination -o; as -o; as -o, 'go thou,' -o, 'go you.' It is identical with the second person plural of the Aorist, from which tense the other persons of the Imperative are taken.

175. If the root end in c - c, or c - o, the plural imperative may be formed as described above; but the more usual course is to clide the radical c or o before adding the o: c.g. sing. c c c give thou, pl. c c give you; sing.

ho, 'be thou,' plural هو ho, 'be ye.' The forms ديو de'o and هيو ho'o are now regarded as provincial and barbarous.

Rem. The terminations of the Prākrit imperative are—Sing. u or a, āhi, etc.; pl. dha or ha: the first of these is dropped in Hindī, and the plural termination ha is changed to o by elision of h and compensatory lengthening of the final vowel.

THE PRECATIVE.

176. There is another form of the Imperative which is properly a Precative, but which is also commonly used in polite speech for the Imperative. It is formed by adding to the verbal root the termination ____ iye for the singular, and بي iyo for the plural; ' as چلے chaliye, ' please go,' or simply 'go;' چلو chaliyo, 'go you.' But at the present time the two forms are both commonly employed in both the singular and the plural, the only difference between them being, that the form ending in iye is always used with the pronomen reverentie ap, and usually refers to present time; whereas that ending in iyo is used with the pronouns $t\bar{u}$ and tum, and is generally a future imperative: eg. آپ چلیے أس chalige, 'please come, or come, Sir, or Sirs;' إس is dirukht-ke pas na jāiyo, 'near this دِرخُت کے پاس نجائِمو مرگِز اِنْکے بیحنے اور آزاد کرنے کا ';tree thou shalt not go hargiz inke bechne aur āzād karne-kā irāda na إراده نه كيحيم kījiyo, 'never form the design of selling or setting free these (animals).' The form ending in iyo is also frequently

¹ Mr. Etherington (*Hindī Grammar*, p. 78) observes that it is incorrect to term the precative ending in *iyo* the plural of that ending in *iyo*, and in this opinion he is supported by native scholars; but though the opinion of these is invaluable in respect of the usage and signification of words, it is utterly untrustworthy where their origin or derivation is concerned, especially in Hindī forms. By comparison with the same form in the sister dialects—Panjūbī, Sindhī, etc.—we obtain conclusive evidence of the form ending in *iyo* being originally the plural of that ending in *iyo*.

Rem. a. The termination iye is derived from the increment ija or ijja, which is inserted between the root and the terminations in the present, imperative, and definite future of Prākrit verbs (Prākrit-Prakāśa, ed. Cowell, p. 30 of Introduction). This increment is traced by Lassen to the Sanskrit precative. In Hindī and Urdū also the Aorist frequently takes the form of the Precative for the three persons of the singular, and adds nasal n thereto for the plural: e.g. مُنَّمُ قَدُلُ لَا اللهُ ال

177. If the root end in $\underline{c} = \overline{i}$ or e, the letter j is inserted between it and the affixes of the Precative, and $majh\bar{u}l$ e of the root is changed to the mairuf \bar{i} before the affixes are added: e.g. $\underline{p}\bar{i}jiye$, from the root \underline{c} $\underline{p}\bar{i}$, 'to drink;' \underline{c} \underline{c} $\underline{d}\bar{i}jiye$, from the root \underline{c} $\underline{d}e$, 'to give.' Instead of inserting j however, the initial i of the affixes may be dropped, and \underline{y} changed to \underline{j} ; as \underline{c} $\underline{p}\bar{i}je$, \underline{c} $\underline{p}\bar{i}jo$, \underline{c} \underline{c} $\underline{d}\bar{i}je$, \underline{c} \underline{c} $\underline{d}\bar{i}jo$.

honā,¹ 'to be or become,' and مونا marnā, 'to die,' also insert j: e.g. هُوجيے

¹ Forbes and others after him state that "when the root ends in $\bar{\imath}$ or \bar{u} , j is inserted for cuphony," etc. But they give no example of a verbal root ending in \bar{u} , which forms its precative thus, and we doubt much whether a single example could be given, nuless it be the verb $m\bar{u}n\bar{u}$, which is rarely if ever used. Indeed, $m\bar{u}jige$ and $m\bar{u}'\bar{u}$ are generally regarded as the precative and perfect participle, not of $m\bar{u}n\bar{u}$, but of $m\bar{u}n\bar{u}$. Examples of verbal roots ending in \bar{u} are $chhun\bar{u}$, 'to touch,' and $ch\bar{u}n\bar{u}$, 'to drip,' but these would certainly not take j in the precative: e.g. $chh\bar{u}ige$, not $chh\bar{u}jige$. The rule would be equally incorrect if o were substituted for \bar{u} , for $hon\bar{u}$ is the only verb of this class that forms its precative with jige.

hūjiye, مُوجِي mūjiye. This last, however, also takes the regular forms مريو mariye, مريد mariye.

Rem. a. The form of the root employed in the precative, it may be observed, is generally that which occurs in the perfect participle, and hence we find $k\bar{\imath}jiye$, $k\bar{\imath}jiye$, $k\bar{\imath}je$, $k\bar{\imath}jiye$, as the precatives of $k\bar{\imath}jiye$, it do,' the forms kariye and kariyo, though occasionally used, being regarded as unchaste. A remarkable exception to this rule, however, is the precative $j\bar{a}iye$, of the verb $j\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, 'to go.'

Rem. b. The affixes عبر iye and يأب iyo, are frequently written عبر iyo, or بنائي iyo, are frequently written جيئي iyo, or e.g. بنائي chali'e; and when the root ends in ā, the initial vowel (i) of the affixes may be elided; as فرماني farmā'iye, or فرماني farmā'ye.

179. The addition of the termination $\Im g\bar{a}$ to the precative ending in *iye* gives it a *future* signification: e.g. $\Im g$ $\Im g$

THE TENSES.

180. The tenses in common use, and which are those allowed by native grammarians, are nine in number, exclusive of the Imperative. Of these tenses four relate to an imperfect act; viz. 1) the Aorist (مناوع ألم المناوع ألم

Future Perfect or Past Potential مانبي شكي māzī shakkī). Two of these tenses, viz. the Aoristi and the Future Perfect, are common to the Indicative and Subjunctive Moods (though the latter is rarely used in the Indicative); the rest pertain to the Indicative Mood. One tense, namely the Past Conditional or Optative, is peculiar to the Subjunctive Mood.

181. The tenses rarely used, and which the native grammarians do not even notice, need not detain the student here: they will be explained hereafter.

FORMATION OF THE TENSES.

- a) THE SIMPLE TENSES.
- 182. The simple tenses of the Active Voice are three; namely, the Aorist, the Past Absolute or Indefinite, and the Past Conditional or Optative.
 - 1) THE ACRIST.
- 183. The Aorist is the only tense that is formed by means of inflectional terminations.² These are:
- ¹ It is inexplicable to us how Mr. Etherington can say (Hindī Grammar, p. 76), "The so-called acrist of the Hindī is not indicative at all; for it never simply asserts, except in ungrammatical patois." He must surely have repeatedly heard the expressions kyā karūň, 'What am I to do?' kahān jā'uň, 'Where shall I go?' khuā jāne, 'God knows?' And he should have known that the acrist is commonly employed in the indicative mood in proverbs e.g. int-chare kutā kāte, 'the dog bites (or will bite) one mounted on a camel.' To call the tense the prospective conditional is to give it a new name, which, so far from being an improvement on the Orākrit present indefinite, which (since the Sanskrit potential has disappeared from the Prākrits) also expresses some of the significations of the potential, and hence is used in both the indicative and subjunctive moods.
- ² The agrist corresponds to the present of the Präkrit, the personal terminations of which tense are:

INGULAR.

1st person $\bar{a}mi$ (S. $\bar{a}mi$).

2nd ,, asi (S. asi).
3rd ,, a-di, ai (S. a-ti).

PLURAL. $\{\bar{a}mo, \bar{a}mu, \bar{a}ma\}$ S. $\bar{a}mah$. amo, amu, ama) aha (S. a-tha). a-mi (S. a-nti).

Comparing these terminations with those of the Hindi, we perceive that, in the

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	
1st person	<u>e</u> n.	
2nd ,, پ و	.ه –و	
3rd ,,	.en بي —	

They are added to the verbal root, and are the same for both genders.

- 184. If the root end in a vowel, certain euphonic changes may be necessary before the terminations are added to it: e.g.
- 1) If the vowel be $i = \bar{a}$, j = o, or $j = \bar{i}$, the letter j w may be inserted between it and the terminations j = e and j = e and j = e, (thou or he) 'will go;' جبویی $j\bar{a}$ -w-e, (thou or he) 'will sleep;' $j\bar{i}$ -w-ei, (we or they) 'will live.' In the case of the verb 'will hona, 'to be,' we find, moreover, that the vowels of the terminations are frequently elided, so that we have the forms: 1st person sing. هروي ho- \bar{u} n, or هوئ hoho; 2nd pers. هروي ho-w-e, or هوئ ho, etc.

Rem. In Urdū, however, w is not very generally inserted, hamza between the vowels being preferred; e.g. $j\bar{a}'u\bar{n}$, $j\bar{a}'u\bar{n}$, so'e, so'e, $j\bar{i}'e$; and the form $so'u\bar{n}$ is obsolete.

Latter, the consonants have all been clided (but the letters m and n have left their mark in the form of the anuscara or nasal), and the vowels a, i of the second and third persons sing, and the 3rd pers, pl have coalesced into e. In the first person the vowel \bar{a} has been changed to \bar{a} , and final i has been clided. In the second person a has been clided, and a lengthened to a.

Rem. a. The personal pronouns may either precede or follow the verb, or they may be omitted. But if any stress is to be laid on the person, the proper pronoun must be expressed, and be placed before the verb.

Rem. b. The acrist frequently takes the form of the precative: e.g. $ky\bar{a}$ $k\bar{\imath}$ -jiye, kuchh ban nah $\bar{\imath}$ in part $\bar{\imath}$, what shall I do? nothing is of any avail; where $k\bar{\imath}$ jiye = karan. The subject will be noticed in the Syntax.

2) THE PAST INDEFINITE.

185. The Past Indefinite or Absolute is formed from the perfect participle, which, in the case of an intransitive verb, is inflected to agree in gender and number with its subject or nominative; but if the verb be transitive, a passive construction is employed, the actor is put in the Agent case and the object of the action becomes the subject or nominative, with which the participle agrees in gender, etc. For example, instead of saying directly, 'the king killed a tigress,' the Urdū uses the form, 'by the king a tigress was killed' (رجاني شبرني ماري rājā-ne shernī mārī). The same construction is employed in all such tenses of the active voice of a transitive verb as are composed of the passive participle, provided the object of the act have the nominative form; but the object may take the dative form, in which case the participle is never inflected.

Rem. This construction is derived from the Sanskrit through the Prākrit, and would appear to be preferred in Sanskrit to the active construction. In Prākrit it is very commonly employed, few traces of the Sanskrit preterite tenses remaining in the dialects thereof. The Hindī departs from the Prākrit, however, in discarding all inflectional terminations, which in the Prākrit were optionally used.

3) THE PAST CONDITIONAL.

186. The Past Conditional or Optative is formed from the imperfect participle, which is inflected to agree in gender and number with the subject or nominative.

Rem. This tense appears to perplex English writers on Urdū grammar greatly. It is called 'The Indefinite,' 'The Present Indefinite,' 'The Retrospective Conditional,' etc., and rendered mostly by the English present. Now the fact is, it is not a present tense at all, but a past subjunctive. The error is probably due to the fact that the present tense is sometimes used elliptically without the auxiliary, and so has the appearance of the conditional; but the two should not be confounded. The conditional was, in all probability, a compound tense originally.

b) THE COMPOUND TENSES.

1) THE FUTURE.

187. The Future is formed by adding to the Aorist the participle \$\mathbb{G}\bar{a}\$ (a contraction of ga\bar{a}\$, whence gay\bar{a}\$, 'gone'), which is inflected to agree with the nominative in gender and number. The Future is therefore properly a Desiderative, or Intentional: e.g. مَسْ حَبُونَا main chal\bar{a}ng\bar{a}\$, 'I shall go or move,' is literally, 'I am gone (that) I move,' i.e. 'I wish to move,' or 'I am going to move;' and hence we occasionally find it so used: e.g. مَسْ دَيْكُونَا جَاهُمَا dekh\bar{a}ng\bar{a}\$, 'I wish to see,' 'I would see' = مَسْ دَيْكُونَا عَمْمُا dekh\bar{a}ng\bar{a}\$, 'I wish to see,' 'I would see'

188. The remaining compound tenses (with the exception of the Future Perfect) are composed of the imperfect or perfect participle and the following auxiliaries, which are also used alone to express simple existence.

Singular.

Plural.

A sham hain, 'I am.'

A sham hain, 'we are.'

A sham hain, 'you are.'

A sham hain, 'they are.'

A sham the, 'we were.'

A sham the, 'you were.'

If the subject or nominative be feminine, تها thā takes the feminine termination: e.g. sing. تها thā, pl. تها thā.

Rem. These are not "anomalous formations derived from hona," as Professor Williams calls them, for honā springs from the Sanskrit $bh\bar{a}$, to be or become,' the Prākrit form of which is ho or hura; whereas the forms $\lambda h\bar{a}h$, etc., are derived from the present tense of the Sanskrit as, 'to be:' e.g. $h\bar{a}h = P$. amhi = S. asmi; hai = P. asi = S. asi, and so on, the process of transformation in Hindī being analogous to that of the terminations of the aorist; h, however (into which the s also of asi, etc., is changed), being in no instance elided, but transposed. The form $\lambda \bar{a}$ thā is traceable to the Sanskrit root $sth\bar{a}$, 'to stand,' which is used even in Sanskrit as a substantive verb with the sense of 'to be.'

Tue Present Imperfect.

189. The Present Imperfect is formed by adding the first of the above auxiliary tenses to the imperfect participle of a verb: e.g. masc. چِلْتِي challā hān, fem. چِلْتِي challā hān, 'I am going.'

Rem. a. The present tense is sometimes formed by adding the same auxiliary to the aorist of a verb; as چُلُوں دُوں an going.' This form, which is properly an indefinite present, was at one period general; numerous instances of its use occur in the poets,

and it is still very common in the tract of country extending from Agra to Sindh; but in other parts of Northern India it is now seldom used, except by the uneducated.

Rem. b. The termination $\[\] g\bar{a}$ is occasionally added to the auxiliary in the present and present perfect tenses, and even when it is used independently, sometimes intensifying, but often without affecting the sense; for example, $\[\lambda \]$ haig $\[\bar{a} \] = \[\lambda \]$ hai; $\[\lambda \]$ chall $\[\bar{a} \]$ haig $\[\bar{a} \] = \[\lambda \]$ chall $\[\bar{a} \]$ hai. Such forms, it may be observed, are regarded as unchaste (gair faṣiḥ) by native scholars.

3) THE PAST IMPERFECT OR CONTINUOUS.

190. This tense is formed by adding the auxiliary تبا thā to the imperfect participle of a verb: c.y. mase. من main chaltā thā, fem. چنا تبا main chaltā thā, fem. چنا تبا main chaltā thā, fem. چنا تبا main chaltā thā, fem. عن main chaltā thā, fem. a sum main chaltā thā, fem. a sum

4) THE PROXIMATE OR PRESENT PERFECT.

191. The Present Perfect is formed by adding the first of the auxiliary tenses to the perfect participle of a verb: e.g. گور (fem. چلا (چلی (fem. chalī) hūn, 'I have gone or set out.' If the verb be transitive, the construction is the same as in the Past Absolute (§ 185), the auxiliary always taking the form of the 3rd person sing. or plural: e.g. راجانے شیر مارا کھی $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ -ne sher $m\bar{a}r\bar{a}$ hai, 'the king has killed a tiger,' or lil. 'by the king a tiger has been killed;' راجانے تین شیر مارے کیں $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ -ne tīn sher $m\bar{a}re$ hain, 'the king has killed three tigers;' مارے کیں $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ -ne tīn sher $m\bar{a}r\bar{a}$ hain, 'the

king has killed three tigresses;' (عني في مار) من التكافي الله larke-ne mujhko (or mujhe) mārā hai, 'that boy has beaten me.' When the object of the act is represented by a personal pronoun, the participle will always remain uninflected, since such pronouns admit of the dative form of the accusative alone.

5) THE REMOTE OR PAST PERFECT.

192. The Past Perfect is formed by adding the auxiliary المنت الم

6) THE FUTURE PERILECT, OR PAST POTENTIAL.

193. This tense is formed by adding the Future of the verb خونا $hon\bar{a}$, 'to be or become,' to the perfect participle of a verb: e.g. المنابع أسلنه المنابع المناب

gone.' If the verb be transitive, the construction is the same as in the case of other tenses composed of passive participles.

Rem. It is a mistake to say that this tense "is not of very frequent occurrence," as all English writers on Hindī and Urdū grammar do. It is commonly employed, both colloquially and in writing; not however as a Future Perfect, but as a Past Potential, expressing the possibility, or uncertainty, of an act.

CONJUGATION.

. 194. We now proceed to conjugate three verbs: viz. the transitive-active verb Likhnā, 'to write;' the intransitive-active verb چلنا chalnā, 'to move or go,' and the substantive verb up honā, 'to be.' The masculine forms alone will be given; it will therefore be borne in mind that, in the Future and all tenses composed of the imperfect and perfect participles, the final vowel \bar{a} of the sing. is changed to \bar{i} for the feminine, and the final vowel e of the plural to in. The verbal nouns and adjectives are declined like other nouns and adjectives ending in \bar{a} . The arrangement of the moods and tenses differs but slightly from that found in existing grammars; it is necessary therefore to again direct attention to the fact that the Conditional, though classed with the tenses derived from the imperfect participle, is a past tense of the subjunctive mood. The Imperative, properly speaking, consists of the second person alone, and this is all that is given; the remaining persons are

identical with those of the Aorist, from which indeed they are borrowed.

I. ROOT 40 likh, 'to write.'

Infinitive or Gerund, الكيا likhnā, 'to write,' 'writing.' Future Act. Participle, \ to write. Imperfect, Likhtā, 'writing.' Progressive, کیتا کو انظالی انداز الله اندا Past Conjunctive (کیکر کے لکیکر) 'having (likh, likh-kar, or likh-kar-ke,) written.'

Adverbial, کیکنے جی لنkhte-hī, 'in the very act, or on the

TENSES FORMED FROM THE ROOT.

instant, of writing.'

1). THE IMPERATIVE.

SINGULAR. PLURAL. تم لِكَبُو tā likh,¹ 'write thou.' تم لِكَبُو ta likh,¹ 'write thou.' تم لِكَبُو ta likh,¹ 'write you,'

Precative, الكبيو likhiye, 'write, or be pleased to write.' Future الكِيْفِيُّ likhi'egā, 'you will be pleased to write.'

¹ It should be observed that there is no necessity to express the personal pronoun in the Imperative, the Aorist, and the Present Perfect (and, in the case of intransitive verbs, in the Past Pertect, and Past Potential), unless any stress is to be laid on the person; and that, in all the tenses, the pronouns, if expressed, as commonly follow as precede the verb.

2). The Aorist.

'I write, or shall write, or should write,' etc.

main likhūn.

tū likhe. تُو لِكهـ

woh likhe.

هم لِکهیں ham likhen. tùm likho. تُم لِکھو

. we likhen وي لكيم بي

3). The Future.

'I shall write,' etc.

main likhūngā. ي woh likhega.

هم لِكنِمنگُ main likhūngā. هم لِكنِمنگُ ham likhcinge.

الله الله تُو لِكهِماً تُو لِكهِماً tū likhegā. تُو لِكهِماً تُو لِكهِماً wöh likheinge.

TENSES FORMED FROM THE IMPERFECT PARTICIPLE.

1). THE PAST CONDITIONAL OR OPTATIVE.

'Had I written,' or 'Did I write,' or (Would that) 'I had written,' etc.

main likhtā. tū likhtā. عنا عن woh likhta.

هم لكيت ham likhte. تُم لِكيت we likhte.

2). The Present Imperfect.

'I am writing,' etc.

هُمْ لِكُهْتَا هُوں main likhtā hān. هُمْ لِكُهْتَا هُوں اللهُمَّةِ مَنْ لِكُهْتًا هُوں tā likhtā hai. ثُمْ لِكُهْتَا هَي tum likhte ho. وي لِكُهْتَا هَي wöh likhtā hai.

3). THE PAST CONTINUOUS OR IMPERFECT.

'I was writing,' and 'I used to write.'

مم لکھتے تھے ham likhte the. هم لکھتے تھے tu likhta tha. مُمَّى لِکھُتا تھا tu likhta tha. تُم لِکھُتا تھا von likhta tha. مو لِکھُتا تھا wo likhta tha.

TENSES FORMED FROM THE PASSIVE PARTICIPLE.

1). THE PAST ABSOLUTE OR INDEFINITE.

'I wrote,' or lit. 'By me (it) was written,' etc.

المجانب المجا

2). THE PROXIMATE OR PRESENT PERFICT.

'I have written,' lit. 'By me (it) has been written,' etc.

main-ne likhā hai. مم نے لکتا کی main-ne likhā hai. مم نے لکتا کی tū-ne likhā hai. مرنے لکتا کی tum-ne likhā hai. أن يے لکہا هي أسنے or اُسنے or اُن يے لکہا هي أus-ne or اُن يے لکہا هي أunhoù-ne likhā hai.

3). THE REMOTE OF PAST PURFECT.

'I had written,' let. 'By me (it) had been written.'

4). THE FUTURE PLRIECT, OR PAST POTENTIAL.

'I shall have written,' (more commonly) 'I may have written,' etc. ham-ne likhā hogā. معم نے لکھا حوگا مراس main-ne likhā hogā. تم نے لکنیا ہوگا $tar{u}$ -ne likh $ar{u}$ hog $ar{u}$. کنیا ہوگا tum-ne likh $ar{u}$ hog $ar{u}$.

unhoù-ne likhā أنبوس نيے لِكنها هُوكًا ، or أُسينة or أُن نيے لِكنها هُوكًا ، un-ne likha hogā.

- 1 It will be understood that the participle takes this form only when the object of the act is in the sing. masc., or in the form of the dative; in every other case it will be inflected to agree with the object in gender and number: e.g. مَيْن نِي حِنْفِي "main-ne ch.diki likhi, 'I wrote a letter.'
- The form is un-ne of the Agent case may also be used; but as this form is generally used for the sing. (not "to indicate respect," as is generally supposed, see إنهور نے unhon-ne is commonly employed for the plural.

Rem. a.—The termination $\bigcup g\bar{a}$ of hogā may even be dropped, in which case the signification is invariably that of the Past Potential: e.g. "us-ne likhā ho, 'he may have written.' أُسْنِي لِكَهَا هو

Rem. b.—If the root ends in a vowel, the conjugation is effected in the same way: the perfect participle is formed by inserting a cuphonic y between the root and the termination \bar{a} (this y, however, being generally dropped again in the masc. pl. and in the fem.), and certain optional forms of the Aorist occur (§ 184): e.g.

Root Les khā, 'to cat.' Perf. part. ble khāyā, 'eaten.'

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

park from in khā'ān.

khāwen.

khāwen.

radin khā'en or khāwen.

khāwen.

radin khā'en or khāwen.

khāwen.

radin khā'en or khāwe.

wǒh khā'e or khāwe.

wǒh khā'en or khāwe.

PAST ABSOLUTE.

main ne khāyā. کیایا مُنِی کیایا tā-ne khāyā. تُمْنے کیایا تُمْنے کیایا تُمْنے کیایا تُمْنے کیایا نے کیایا un-ne khāyā. تُمْنے کیایا un-ne khāyā.

II. ROOT کے chal, 'to move, or go.'

Infinitive or Gerund, چلنا chal-nā, 'to go,' 'going.'

Noun of Agency, and ولله والا و ohalne-wālā, 'goer,' 'about Future Active Participle,

chal-ta, 'moving or going.' Imperfect

chal-ā, 'moved or gone.' Perfect

Progressive عِنْنَا هُوا chaltā hā'ā, 'in the act of moving,' etc.

Past Perfect چلاهُوا chalā hū'ā, 'become moved,' 'gone.'

Past Conjunctive { چل _ چلکر _ چلکر _ چلکر چلکر _ having moved,' chal, chal-kar, chal-kar-ke, } ' having moved,'

Adverbial چِلْت هِي challe-hī, 'in the very act, or on the instant of moving,' etc.

THE IMPERATIVE.

tum chalo, 'go you.' تُم چلو tum chalo, 'go you.' Precative, چلیے chaliye, 'go, or be جلیے chaliyo, 'you shall or pleased to go.'

Future Line chali'egā, 'you will be pleased to go.'

THE ACRIST.

"I go, or shall go, or should go,' etc.

main chalūn. tū chale. تُو حِلے علے so woh chale.

هم چلس ham chalen. tum chalo. تُم چلو we chalen.

THE FUTURE.

'I shall go,' etc.

main chalūngā مَبْن چِلُونْنَا tā chalegā. تُو چليگا

هم چلینگے ham chalenge. tum chaloge. تُم چلوگ we chalenge. وي جلينگ woh chalegā.

THE PAST CONDITIONAL OR OPTATIVE.

'Had I gone,' 'Did I go,' (Would that) 'I had gone,' etc.

main chaltā. tū chaltā. تُو چلتا وُ حلتا ، woh chalta.

ham chalte. tum chalte. تُم چلتے we c.

THE PRESENT IMPERFECT.

'I am going,' etc.

ham chalte hain. هم چلّت هُبْس ham chalte hain. مَيْن چلّتا هُوں tu chalta hai. تُم چلّت هو tum chalte ho. وي چلّت هيں we chalta hai. وي چلّت هيں we chalta hain.

THE PAST CONTINUOUS OR IMPERFECT.

'I was going,' etc.

THE PAST ABSOLUTE OR INDEFINITE.

'I went,' etc.

1 main chala. tū chalā.

1 s. woh chalā.

الم حلي ham chale. تم چلي tum chale. we chale.

THE PROXIMATE, OR PRESENT PERFECT.

'I have set out, or gone,' etc.

THE REMOTE, OR PAST PLEFECT.

'I had started or gone,' etc.

من چلا تها main chalā thā. حم چلے تھے ham chala the.

tum chale the. تب جلے تبے tum chale the. we chale the. وي چلے تھے ا wöh chalā thā.

THE FUTURE PERFECT, OR PAST POTENTIAL,

'I shall have gone,' or (more commonly) 'I may have gone,' etc.

مر حلے هوگے or هوں منظم من محلے هوگے or هوں منظم main chalā من محلے هوگے or موں اللہ hāngā or hon.

hangā or hon.

or honge or hon تُم چلے هوگے or هو tua chalā hogā or ho.

or ho.

we chale مون چلے هونگ or هوں مناه و د چلاهوگا or دو مناه و د چلاهوگا or دو مناه و مناه مناه و د دولاهوگا or دو

Rem. The above is the conjugation of an intransitive-active verb, the root of which ends in a consonant. If the root ends in a vowel, the agrist admits of certain optional forms, and the masculine singular of the perfect participle takes an euphonic y between the root and the termination. The following tenses will therefore suffice to show the process of conjugation:

THE AORIST.

'I come, or shall come, or should come,' etc.

THE PAST ABSOLUTE, OR INDLINITE.

'I came,' etc.

UT , main aya. سيس main āyā. ئو آيا tù āyā wòh āyā. wòh aya. Fem. هم آئس main ā'ī, elc. Fem. هم آئس آئي ham ā'īn, etc.

ham ā'e. کم آئے tum ā'c. تَمْ آئيـ ve a'e.

ии. поот " ho,1 'to be, or become.'

Infinitive or Gerund & honā, 'to be, or become,' 'being,' etc. Fut. Act. Part. Me Lone-wala, about to be, or become, one who, or what, is, or is about, to be or become.

hotā, 'being, or becoming.' Perf et مُعْرِلًا hā'ā, 'been, or become.' Adverbial هوتے هي hote-hī, ' in the very act, or in the instant of being,' etc.

¹ Urdu grammanans, after the example of the Arabic, have two names for the verb hona, and the other auxiliary verbs with the same signification. When the substantive verb is used to denote simple being or existence, they term it fe'le nakes, the incomplete or detective verb,' because an attribute is required to complete the sense; but when it contains the attribute in itself, and requires no other, they term it forth tamm, 'the complete or absolute verb.'

² Urdū also occasionally employs the common 'lindī form honhār, 'what is to be,' etc., where the affix har is added to the verbal noun hon.

THE IMPERATIVE.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

tum hu, 'be or become you.' مَو هو tum hu, 'be or become you.'

Precative مُوجِيت hūjiye, 'be pleased مُوجِيت hūjiye, 'you shall be or to become,' etc.)

become.'

Fut. مُوجِقيكا hūji'egā, 'will you be pleased to become.'

THE AORIST.

'I am, I shall be, I should be, or become,' etc.

THE FUTURE.

'I shall be, or become,' etc.

or hāngā. مورينگ موريگا موريگا مورگا مورگا

THE PAST CONDITIONAL OR OPTATIVE.

'Were I,' 'Did I become,' (Would that) 'I were,' etc.

main hotā. هم هوتي هوتا مُعَيْن هوتا tā hotā. تُم هوت tum hotē. تُم هوتا يُو هوتا wõh hotā. وي هوتا wõh hotā.

¹ The forms marked with an asterisk are now seldom or never used. The forms $ho'eg\bar{a}$ and ho'enge in the 2nd and 3rd pers. sing. and the 1st and 3rd pers. plural of the Future, which are given in Forbes' and other grammars, rarely if ever occur in the Urdū of the present period.

THE PRESENT IMPERFECT.

'I am becoming,' etc.

main hotā hān. هم هوت مَيْن هوتا هُون الله main hotā hān. مَيْن هوتا هُون الله tā.hotā hai. تُم هوت هو tā.hotā hai. تُم هوت هي we hote hain.

THE PAST CONTINUOUS OR IMPERFECT.

'I was becoming,' etc.

THE PAST ABSOLUTE OR INDEFINITE.

'I became,' etc.

هُ مُعْنَى هُواً مَعْنَى هُواً مَعْنَى هُواً مَعْنَى هُواً مَعْنَى هُواً لَمْ اللهِ مَعْنَى هُواً لِمَا تَو هُواً لَمْ اللهِ ي شُونْد we hū'e.

THE PROXIMATE OR PRESENT PERFECT.

'I have become,' etc.

هُمْ هُوئِے هُيْں main hū'ā hān. هُمْ هُوئِے هُيْں ham hū'e hain. هُمْ هُوئے هُوں tu hū'ā hai. تُم هُوئے هو tum hū'e ho. وي هُوئے هُيْں wöh hū'ā hai. وي هُوئے هُيْں we hū'e hain.

THE REMOTE OR PAST PERFECT.

'I had become,' etc.

main hū'ā thā. tā hū'ā thā. ود هُوا تيا woh hū'ā thā.

ham hū'e the. تُم هُوئے تہے tum hū'e the.

THE FUTURE PERFECT AND PAST POTENTIAL.

'I shall have become,' or 'I may have become,' etc.

ADDITIONAL TENSES.

195. We may here notice the tenses not in common use, spoken of in § 181. These are: 1). The Future Imperfect, which is formed by adding the Future of the verb be honā to the imperfect participle of a verb: 2). The Present Potential, formed by adding the Aorist of the verb \cup_{s} honā to the imperfect part. of a verb: 3). The Past Perfect Continuous of the Subjunctive mood, formed by adding the imperfect participle of the verb U. $hon\bar{a}$ to the imperfect participle of another verb: 4) the Past Perfect Subjunctive, formed by adding the imperfect participle of the verb U.s honā, to the perfect part. of another verb. The first and second of these tenses are both called حال مُتشكِي hālě mulushakki, 'the present potential,' by native grammarians, because the first is frequently used, the second always, to express uncertainty or possibility. The third and fourth are both termed مانجى māzī shartī, 'the past conditional.' They are very seldom used; the shorter form of the māzī shartī, given among the tenses in common use, being preferred. The four tenses are subjoined:

1). THE FUTURE IMPERFLUT.

'I shall be going,' or 'I may be going,' etc.

ham chalte honge. هم چلّت هونّگ مرسّل main chaltā hūngā. مرسّ چلّتا هُونّگا tum chalte hoge. تُم چلّت هوگے ا tū chaltā hogā.

we chalte honge. وي حِلْت هونگ wöh chalta hoga. أو حِلْت هوگا

2). The Present Potential.

'I may be going,' etc.

han chalte hon. هم چلتے هوں ا rain chalta hon.

tum chalte ho. تُم چلتے هو tum chalta ho. وي چلتے هو wöh chaltā ho. وي چلتے هوں we chalte hoin.

3). THE PAST PERFECT CONTINUOUS (SUBJUNCTIVE).

'Had I been going,' or 'I might have been going,' etc.

ham chalte hote. هم چلنے هوتے اللہ main chalta hota. هم چلنے هوتا اللہ tā chaltā hotā. تُم چلنے هوتا اللہ woh chaltā hotā. وي چلنے هوتا وي woh chaltā hotā.

4). THE PAST PERFECT (SUBJUNCTIVE).

'Had I gone,' etc.

ham chale hote. هِم چليه هوتي ham chala hotā.

tum chale hote. تُم چلے هوتے tā chalā hotā. we chale hote. وي جلي موتي we chale hote.

THE PASSIVE VOICE.

196. Only transitive verbs have a passive voice. The tenses of this are regularly formed in all verbs by means of the tenses of the verb ble jana, 'to go' (the perfect participle of which is $2gay\bar{a}$; though every form in which the verb $\forall j\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ is found is not passive: e.g. $\forall z$ uthā jānā, 'to rise أَتَّهَا حِالًا 'chalā jānā, 'to go away,' التَّهَا حِالًا uthā jānā, 'to rise up, 'to be able to rise,' are active forms of intransitive

verbs. Whether the verb is passive or intransitive is decided not by the presence of the auxiliary control by the nature of the participle prefixed to it. It this to passive, so also, generally, is the verb: if it is not passed but only a perfect participle of an intransitive verb, neither is the verb passive.

197. In the following conjugation of the passive voice of the verb ديكيا dehhnā, 'to see,' the mascuine forms alone are given. If the nominative to the verb be feminine, the termination of the passive participle must be changed to $= \bar{i}$ in both the singular and the plural; and that of all the participial forms, and of the Future, of the auxiliary must be changed to $z=\bar{i}$ in the singular, and in the plural.

Passive Verb, ديكيا جانا dekhā jānā, 'to be seen.'

Infinitive or Verbal Noun, ديكبا جانا dekhā jānā, ('being seen.' Imperfect Participle, ديكها جاتا dekhā jātā, 'being seen.' Passive Participle, ديکيا گيا dekhā gayā, 'been seen.'1

THE IMPRIATIVE.

tum dekha jā'o, 'be thou seen.' تُم ديكي جاوً tū dekhā jā, 'be thou seen.' تُو ديكها جا

THE ACRIST.

'I am, or shall be, or should be, seen,' etc.

dekhe jāwen or jā'en.

dekhe jāwen or jā'en.

jāwe or jā'e.

ham هم ديكهے جاويں _ جائيں | main dekhā jā'ān. ميں ديكها جاؤں dekhe jawen or ja'en.

¹ It is needless to give the remaining participles, as none of them, except perhaps the adverbial (دیکیے جاتے هِی) dekhe jāte-hī, 'on the instant of being seen,' are ever used.

THE FUTURE.

'I shall be seen,' etc.

PLURAL.

م دیکیے جائنگ اسمن اللہ میں دیکیا جاؤنگا میں دیکیا جاؤنگا بھا میں دیکیا جاؤنگا jā'enge.

jā'enge.

tum dekhe jā'oge.

jāwegā, or jā'egā.

we dekhe وي ديكبے جاوينگ woh dekha وُه د كبا جاويگا۔ جايگا jāwenge.

THE PASE CONDITIONAL OR OPTATIVE.

jāvergā, or jā'egā.

'Had I been seen,' 'Were I seen,' etc.

THE PRESENT IMPERFECT.

'I am being seen,' etc.

woe dekhe jato وي ديكه جات حَيْن من woh dekha jata hai. ود ديكها جاتا هَي

ham dekhe مَّ دَيكَهِ جَاتِ هَيْنَ لَيكُهَا جَاتًا هُونَ اللهُ ال

THE PAST CONTINUOUS OR IMPERFECT.

'I was being seen,' etc.

ham dekhe هم ديكها جات تهي main dekhā مَيْن ديكها جاتا تها jātā thā. tum dekho تُم دیکہے جاتے تھے اہم dekhā jātā thā. woh dekha jata tha. وي ديكه جاني تهي وه dekha jata tha.

THE PAST ABSOLUTE OR INDEFINITE.

'I was seen,' etc.

SINGULAR.

ham dekhe ga'c. هم ديكها گيا مين ديكها گيا we dekhe ga'c. وي ديكنا كيا woh dchhā gayā.

tum dekhe ga'e. تُم ديكني گلُّه tū dekhā gayā.

THE PROXIMATE OR PRESENT PERFECT

'I have been seen,' etc.

we dekhe وي ديكنے گئے هش أ wòh dekhā gayā hai. وي ديكها گيا كهي

THE REMOTE OR PAST PERIECT.

'I had been seen,' etc.

ham delhe هم ديکيے گئے تیے main delha مَيْن ديکها گيا تها gayā thā. tum dekhe تُم دیکھے گئے تھے اللہ ta dekha gaya tha. تُو دیکھا گیا تھا wöh dekhā gayā thā. أ وي ديكها كيا تها wöh dekhā gayā thā.

THE FUTURE PERFECT, OR PAST POTENTIAL.

I shall have been seen,' or more commonly, 'I may have been seen,' etc. ham هم دیکھے گئے هونگے۔هوں اِ maii مَنْ دیکھا گیا هُونگا۔هوں dekhe ga'e honge, or hon. dekhā gayā hūngā, or hon, tum تُم دیکھے گئے ہوگے ۔ ہو ا tū dekhā gayā فوگیاگیا ہوگا۔ ہو hogā, or ho. dekhe ga'e hoge, or ho. dekhe ga'e hoge, or ho. v وي ديكنے گئے هونگے ـ هوں v هوگا هوگا هوگا هو dekhe ga'e honge, or hon. gayā hogā, or ho.

DERIVATIVE VERBS.

198. Derivative verbs may be classed under the three heads of Causals, Denominatives, and Compound Verbs.

I. CAUSAL VERBS.1

- 199. From nearly every verb in the language a causal may be derived. This causal will be transitive if formed from an intransitive verb, doubly transitive or causative if formed from a transitive verb. From most causals again a second or double causal may be formed.
- 200. Simple verbal roots are generally changed into causal bases by the addition of the increment $1-\bar{a}$, and into those which are doubly causal by means of the increment $\sqrt[4]{w\bar{a}}$, and the root is then treated as a primitive root ending in \bar{a} . But in some verbs the causal characteristic \bar{a} becomes $\sqrt[4]{\bar{a}}$; and in others it is inserted in the root itself: hence three cases arise:
- a) The causal may, generally speaking, be formed by adding $l = \bar{u}$ to the root of a primitive verb, whether it be transitive or intransitive, and the double causal by inserting w before the increment \bar{u} of the causal: e.g.

¹ A causal verb is termed by the native grammarians fe'lö muta'addī bi'l wāsita, 'a verb which passes on (to an object) by means of (an increment),' in contradistinction to 'a verb which is transitive per se,' or fe'li muta'addī bi nafsihi.

² In a few verbs w would appear to be inserted before the causal increment \bar{a} for the sake of cuphony alone.

Subordinate to this rule are the two following:

1) If the root of the primitive verb be dissyllabic, the vowels of both syllables being short and that of the second fatha (a), this fatha is dropped in the first causal (cf. § 34, 4, Rem. c.): e.g.

2) If the root of the primitive verb be monosyllabic and enclose a long vowel or diphthong, the vowel or diphthong is changed in both causals into the corresponding short vowels, or, in other words, the letters of prolongation 1, 2, are dropped: e.g.

be awake.' (one) to be wakened.' (one) to be wakened.' (one) to be wakened.' bhīg-nā, 'to bhigā-nā, 'to wet.' نبيكنا bhīg-nā, 'to have become wet.' (a thing) wetted.' (a thing) wetted.' أبولنا 'dubā-nā, 'to sink,' أبوانا 'dubā-nā, 'to have sink' (intrans.). 'to immerse.' (a thing) sunk.' (a thing) sunk.' bol-nā, 'to blaā-nā, 'to call بولنا bol-nā, 'to have speak.'

baith-nā, 'to يَّتَهُواْنا baith-nā, 'to seat.' لِتَهُواْنا bithwā-nā, 'to cause sit down.'

b) If the root of the primitive verb end in a long vowel $(\bar{a}, \bar{\imath}, e, \bar{u}, o)$, the increment generally takes the form $\mathbb{I}(\bar{a})$ in the causal, and $\mathbb{I}(\bar{a})$ in the double causal; and the long vowel of the root is shortened as in the preceding, rule: e.g.

The causals of hhīgnā and dūhnā may also take the forms bhigonā and dubonā (See Rem. § 202), and that of baithnā other forms, which are given under Rule c.

PRIMITIVE VEPR	. CAUSAL.	DOUBLE CAUSAL.	
کهانا $khar{a}$ - $nar{a}$	khilā-nā,¹ 'to give to كَبِلَانَا	khilwā-nā. كَيْلُوانا	
'to eat.'	ent,' 'to feed.'	- /	
<i>pī-nā</i> , ' to پينا drink.' •	pilā-nā, 'to give to drink.'	pilwā-nā پِلُوانا	
<i>de-nā</i> , ' to give.'	يانا dilā-nā, 'to cause to give.'	دِٽوانا dilwā-nā.	
chhū-nā, عَبُونا chhū-nā, 'to touch.'	chhulā-nā, 'to cause خِيُلان to touch.'	chhulwā-nā. چېلوانا	
so-nā, ' to مونا sleep.'	سلال sulā-nā, 'to put to sleep.'	sulwā-nā. سُلُوانا	

A few verbs take the form of the double causal alone: e.g. کیونا khonā, 'to lose,' causal کیونا khuwā-nā; کاب khuwā-nā; کیونا gānā, 'to sing,' causal لینا fana, 'to take,' causal لینا fana, 'to take,' causal لیانا fana

Some verbs, the roots of which end in consonants (chiefly h, kh th), may take the increment $t\bar{a}$ in the causal, as well as \bar{a} ; but in the double causal the increment is always $w\bar{a}$: e.g.

```
ديكتانا causal كَبُنانا kahā-nā, or كَبُنا kahā-nā. ديكتينا dekh-nā, 'to see,' بيكتانا به dikhā-nā, or كيكتانا به dikhā-nā, or كيكتانا به sīkh-nā, 'to learn,' سكيانا به sikhā-nā, or سكيانا به sūkh-nā, 'to dry,' يسكيانا به sūkh-nā, or نام sūkh-nā, or سكيانا بيتيانا بيتيانا بيتيانا بيتيانا له biṭhāl-nā, or له biṭhāl-nā,
```

يهاندنا phānd-nā, 'to ensnare,' ,, يهندلاما phāndlā-nā.

Rem. The same causal forms are also found in cases where the roots of the primitive verbs (which have become obsolete) end in t(d), and s; as $batl\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$, to tell, to point out; phusl \bar{a} - $n\bar{a}$, to wheedle, to coax.

¹ The instances of radical \tilde{a} changing to i in the causal are not numerous; and even the example given above takes the form khalāmā in Southern India.

c) Intransitive roots enclosing short vowels are frequently made transitive by the insertion of \bar{a} in the root itself, this \bar{a} coalescing with radical a into \bar{a} , with radical i into e, and with radical u into o: (final t of the root, it may be observed, is frequently changed into r in the transitive verb): e.g.

ن dabnā, 'to be pressed,' transitive دانيا dābnā, 'to press.' katnā, 'to be spun,' ,, كاتّنا kātnā, 'to spin.' .. كاتّنا kātnā, 'to cut.' لتنا katnā, 'to be cut,' "phatnā, 'to be torn,' " bile phārnā, 'to tear.' لدّنا ladnā, 'to be laden,' لاكرنا lādnā, 'to load.' ,, لنَّذُهنا bāndhnā, 'to bind.' bandhnā, 'to be bound,' marnā, 'to die,' " سقر mārnā, 'to kill.' "garnā, 'to be buried,' ,, البُّلُ gārnā, 'to bury.' palnā, 'to be protected,' النَّا pālnā, 'to protect.' nikalnā, 'to come out,' " نكالك nikālnā, 'to take out.' thāmnā, ¡ to hold, thamnā,) to be held, thambhnā, or supported,' " بيانينا thānbhnā, sor support.' ritnā, 'to be filed,' ", retnā, 'to file. بتنا chhidnā, 'to be perforated,' " دنا چيدنا chhednā, 'to perforate.' لكنا biknā, 'to be sold,' " to sell." phutnā,) 'to burst, ", پيوڙنا phornä, 'to break.' phūṭnā,) or split asunder,' " کیه لنا kholnā, 'to open.' khulnā, 'to become open,'

¹ The softening of the tenuis ℓ into the media d (r), and of ℓh into rh, occurs most commonly after the letters p, ph, ch, chh, and gh: e.g. $parhn\bar{a}$, 'to read' = Sanskrit $pa\ell hanam$; $p\bar{r}rh\bar{a}$, 'a stool' = S. $p\bar{r}\ell ha$; $phor\bar{a}$, 'a boil' = S. $spho\ell aka$; $chiriy\bar{a}$, 'a bird' = S. chataka; $chhakr\bar{a}$, 'a cart' = S. shatata; ghara, 'an earthen pot' = S. ghata; $ghor\bar{a}$, 'a horse' = S. $gho\ell aka$. If ph and a long vowel precede ℓ , it generally passes into r.

² This change of k into ch is almost inexplicable. I can find no mention of such a change in the $Pr\bar{a}krita$ - $Prak\bar{a}k\sigma$. But there would appear to be in Sanskrit some connection between the guttural class of letters and the palatal; for when a verb beginning with a guttural is reduplicated, the corresponding palatal is used; and, reversely, final ch of nominal bases is changed into k before certain case-endings.

- Rem. a. In a few transitive verbs the root vowels of the corresponding intransitives are simply lengthened: e.g. بيشنا pīsnā, 'to grind,' from بيشنا pisnā; بيشنا pīṣnā, 'to beat,' from بيشنا piṣnā, 'to peel,' from بيشنا gūthnā, 'to peel,' from گوتهنا guthnā.
- Rem. b. Under this class of verbs (which are strangely termed "anomalous") existing grammars place the verb ركبنا, rakhnā, 'to keep,' as the causal of رهنا rahnā, 'to remain;' but this is a mistake: the two verbs are derived from distinct Sanskrit forms.
- 201. These verbs, though derived (as we shall presently see) from Sanskrit causals, have in many, if not most, cases lost the causal signification, and become simply transitive. Hence we find that some of the intransitive verbs of this class, as well as their transitive derivatives, have also regular causals (and double causals) formed from them; but these, as a rule, retain the true causal character; and where the primitive intransitive verb has various significations, it will often be found that some of them are peculiar to the transitive and some to the causal derivative: e.g. from the verb with phūtuā is formed the transitive werb, and the causal white phutūnā; but the former signifies 'to break,' and the latter 'to make (water, etc.) boil,' a sense which phornā never has.

¹ This common word, strange to say, is not found in Shakespear's Dictionary, and, though given in Forbes', is said to mean 'to increase,' etc. But the dictionaries make sad confusion among the causal verbs. Light garānā, for example, is given as the causal of Light garnā alone; but there can be no doubt of its being the causal of Light gārnā also: in the first case it signifies 'to prick,' 'to thrust in,' etc.; in the second, 'to have or get (a thing or person) buried.' Similarly haṭānā is the causal of both Light kaṭnā and Light kāṭnā, but more commonly that of the latter. We may here observe that in some verbs the first causal derived from a transitive verb is sometimes identical in meaning with the second. c.g. kaṭāna = haṭē āna; rakhānā = rakhwānā.

202. The following sentences will exemplify the use of the primitive and causal forms of a verb:

مكان گِرْتا هَي makān girtā hai, 'the house is falling:'
دُهُ آدْمِي مكان كو گِراتا هَي wòh ādmī makān-ko girātā hai, 'that (or the) man is throwing (or pulling) down the house:'

apne makān-ko girwātā hai, 'the owner is having his house pulled down by that man.'

مَيْنَ عربِي پَرَهْتا هُوں main arabī parhtā hūn, 'I am reading

مُوں عربِي پڙهاتا هُوں apne larke-ko 'arabī parhātā hūn',
'I am teaching my boy Arabic :'

مُواوِي صاحب سے اپنے لزّکے کو عربي پرقمواتا هُوں maulavī sāḥibse apne larke-ko urabī parhwāta hūn, 'I am having my boy taught Arabic by the Maulavī-ṣāḥib.

Rem. The causal affix of the Sanskrit is ay, which in many verbs (chiefly when the verbal root ends in a long vowel) takes the form $\bar{a}pay$. The Prākrit changes ay into e, and $\bar{a}pay$ into $(\bar{a}be$, and then) $\bar{a}ve$, and uses both forms without any apparent distinction. In Hindī and its sister dialects the first affix is not used, and the second is changed to $\bar{a}u$, by elision of final e, and weakening of v to u; and from $\bar{a}u$, by elision of u, is derived the causal characteristic \bar{a} of the modern Hindī. But in a few verbs the vowels \bar{a} , u, would appear to have coalesced into o: e.g. $bh\bar{\imath}gon\bar{a}$, $dubon\bar{a}$, $garon\bar{a}$, etc., the causals of $bh\bar{\imath}gn\bar{a}$, $d\bar{\imath}bn\bar{a}$, and $garn\bar{a}$.

The modern dialects also use $l\bar{a}$ as a causal characteristic, and in this form the l is generally supposed to be inserted for the sake of euphony. But in this opinion we cannot concur; for when these languages desire to avoid a hiatus (and we may observe in passing that they are by no means averse to a hiatus), they generally insert y, or h, and not l. Besides, we find $l\bar{a}$ used as the causal affix even in

cases where the verbal root ends in a consonant, and no insertion of euphonic l is called for. It seems more probable that $l\bar{a}$ is derived from the Sanskrit causal affix ay, which was first changed to $\bar{a}l$, or $\bar{a}r$ (the two letters l and r being commonly interchangeable), and then to $l\bar{a}$, or $r\bar{a}$. Hindī and Panjābī show a preference for $l\bar{a}$, while Sindhī and Gujarātī prefer $r\bar{a}$. We can only call to mind one example of the form $\bar{a}l$ of the increment in Hindī, namely $bith\bar{a}ln\bar{a}$; but numerous examples of the form $\bar{a}r$ are to be found in Sindhī. That y is occasionally changed into l is seen from the Prākrit latthi (the Hindī $lath\bar{a}$, \bar{a} a stick, or lath, \bar{a} column') = Sanskrit yashti ($Pr\bar{a}krita-Prak\bar{a}$), and \bar{a} , col. Cowell, sect. ii. 32).

As regards the verbs given under Rule c.), it may be mentioned that their bases are not formed in Hindi in the manner described; but the rule is an attempt to explain the modification which a verbal root undergoes in Sanskrit before it receives the causal affix. These verbs are incorrectly called "anomalous:" they are simply derived from the verbal nouns of Sanskrit causals; e.g. the verbal noun maranam of the Sanskrit root mri, is the source of the Hindi intransitive verb marna, 'to die;' in the causal the root mri takes the form mār, and the verbal noun is māranam, whence the Hindī transitive verb mārnā, 'to kill.' In not a few cases a process the reverse of that described in the rule takes place; namely, the intransitive verb is formed from the transitive in Hindī itself: e.g. the Sanskrit causal form pālanam = Hindī pālnā, 'to protect,' whence is formed palnā, 'to be protected;' the Sanskrit māpanam = Hindī māpnā, 'to measure,' whence mapnā, 'to be measured.' Some transitive verbs, it may be observed, have no corresponding intransitive, and retain no trace of their being causals; as bhejnā, 'to send' = S. bhedanam, 'dividing.'

II. DENOMINATIVE VERBS.

203. Denominatives may be conveniently noticed under the two following heads.—

1) DENOMINATIVES FORMED FROM VERBAL NOUNS.

These are formed by adding the infinitive increment نا nā to a Persian or Arabic verbal noun; e.g. نام نام bakhsha, 'to forgive,' from the Persian خريد bakhsh; نخريد الله harīd-nā, 'to purchase,' from the Persian عزيد hadalnā, 'to change,' from the Arabic عزيد hadalnā, 'to accept,' from the Arabic قبُول kabūlnā, 'to accept,' from the Arabic قبُول kabūlnā, 'to accept,' from the Arabic قبُول kabūlnā, 'to accept,' from the Arabic المعاملة الم

2) DENOMINATIVES DERIVED FROM OTHER NOUNS.

These are formed by adding the termination $U - \bar{a}n\bar{a}$ to a substantive or adjective, final - i being changed to iy before the termination is added, and a long vowel in a dissyllabic noun shortened : e.g. شرمانا sharmānā, 'to be bashful,' from شرّم sharm, 'shame;' گرمانا garmānā, 'to be heated,' 'to become warm or angry,' from garm, 'hot;' پنِیَانا paniyānā, 'to water, or irrigate,' from پنِیَانا pānī, 'water;' مكتان mukiyānā, 'to hit with the fist,' 'to knead dough,' from , "the fist.' If the noun or adjective end in \bar{a} , the termination $n\bar{a}$ alone is added; as chaurānā, 'to widen,' from چُوڙانا جُوڙانا جُوڙانا langrānā, 'to go lame,' 'to limp,' from الكا langrā, 'lame.' A few Persian nouns also, which are monosyllabic and enclose a long vowel, take the termination nā instead of ana: e.g. داغنا dagna, 'to brand, or cauterize,' from ¿\s dag, 'a spot or mark.'

Rem. Denominatives are not of very common occurrence in Urdū, compound forms being generally preferred : e.g. يَخْشُ دِينا bakhsh denā,

'to forgive,' قَبُول كُرْنا 'kabūl karnā, 'to accept,' مَكِي مَارَنا 'mukkī mārnā, 'to hit with the first,' پانِي دينا 'pānī denā, 'to water,' چُوڙا 'chaurā karnā, 'to widen.'

III. COMPOUND VERBS.

204. Compound verbs, or what are commonly regarded as such, are very numerous in Hindūstānī. They are generally divided into Nominals, Intensives, Potentials, Completives, Continuatives, Staticals, Frequentatives, Desideratives, Inceptives, Permissives, Acquisitives, and Reiteratives; but not a few of these are, strictly speaking, not compound verbs, but phrases, as we shall show in noticing them.

NOMINALS.

205. These are formed by prefixing a noun (substantive or adjective) to a verb: e.g.

Such forms, it is clear, are not compound verbs; the noun in every instance simply serves to complete the notion of the verb, forming the *predicative noun* in the *Nominative* when the verb is *intransitive*, and in the *Accusative* when the verb is *transitive*. It is even (as we shall show in the Syntax) in not a few instances separated from the verb by other words.

206. Similar in character to the Nominal verbs are the

few compounds formed by prefixing a Persian preposition or adverb to a Hindī verb: e.g.

لَّ الْمَاتِ bar-ānā, 'to come up or forth,' 'to succed.'

الله bar-lānā, 'to bring up or forth,' 'to accomplish.'

الله ba-hām-ānā, 'to come together,' 'to be acquired.'

الله ba-hām-pāhunchnā, 'to arrive or come together,' 'to be procured.'

الله bāz-ānā, 'to come back,' 'to decline,' 'to abstain.'

الله bāz-rakhā, 'to keep or hold back,' 'to restrain.'

الله pesh-ānā, 'to come before,' 'to present (itself),' 'to treat,'etc.

الله dar-ānā, 'to come in,' 'to enter.'

- 207. The remaining compound verbs may be arranged under four classes, according as they are formed with the verbal root, the imperfect participle, the perfect participle, or the conjunctive participle.
 - a) Compounds formed with the Root.

 These are the Intensives, Potentials, and Completives.

1) Intensives.

208. Intensives are formed by prefixing the root of a verb to another verb, which is regularly conjugated, the root remaining unchanged. The signification of the compound is that of the root intensified by the second member. In many cases however the effect produced by the second member of the compound is not obvious. Examples are:—

Rem. The appropriate verb for intensifying another, like the appropriate adverb in English, is determined by usage. Not a few verbs, which existing grammars call intensives, have nothing intensive in their signification; some of them are properly completives; others simply transitives, formed by prefixing the root form of the conjunctive participle of the verb المن المستقالة المستقا

2) Potentials.

209. These verbs express the ability to perform an action. They are formed by adding the verb waknā, 'to be able,' to the root form of another verb: e.g.

با سکنا jā-sahnā, 'to be able to go.' جا سکنا dehh-sahnā, 'to be able to see.' دیکہ سکنا kar-saknā, 'to be able to do.' کر سکنا شوں main-kar-saktā hun, 'I can do.' مَسِن کر سکتا شُوں دیکہ سکا شوں میکا شوہ دیکہ سکا

- ¹ A recent writer on Urdū Grammar observes: "The verbs le-ānā, le jānā, khā-jānā, etc., are neuter, because the verbs ānā and jāna are neuter." This is simply incorrect. They are transitive, and are so called by native grammarians; but, like a few other transitive verbs, do not take the passive construction in the tenses composed of the past participle because a passive participle cannot be formed from them.
- ² The same grammarian tries to "discriminate" between the forms ho-jānā and ho-rahnā; so-jānā and so-rahnā; but his remarks show that he is not aware of the fact that the verbs jānā and rahnā are frequently synonymous, and are commonly used in the sense of honā, and are called by the native grammarians 'tho sisters of hona.' Had he lived in India, he would have often heard the expression so raho used in the sense of 'go to sleep,' and sāḥib so rahā hai, in the sense of both 'the master is sleeping,' and 'the master has gone to sleep.' So, in the Khirad Afroz, p-74, nahā rahī hai = nahātī hai.

Rem. It is very probable that the first part of these compounds is the apocopated infinitive, and not the root. Indeed we occasionally find the full form of the infinitive (always inflected however) expressed; as وَدُ دَيْكُهُنِي سُكُنا هُيُ woh dokhne saktā hai, 'he can see.' It may be observed that the verb saknā occurs only in compounds.

3) Completives.

210. These are obtained by adding the verb \vec{na} , 'to come to an end,' 'to be finished,' to the root of a verb; as

بول چُكنا bol-chuknā, 'to have done speaking.' بول چُكنا يَّ إِهُمْ يُرْهُمْ چُكنا يَّرْهُمْ چُكنا

In the past tenses the compound may also imply that the act is really finished in agreement or disagreement with what preceded it, or just a little before the time of speaking; as من المنابع المناب

Rem. The verb chuknā, like the verb saknā, occurs only in compounds.

- b) Compounds formed with the Imperfect Participle.
- 211. These are the Continuatives and Staticals of existing grammars. They are not compound verbs, but phrases wherein the participle is used adjectively or adverbially to denote a $-h\bar{a}l$, or circumstance.

1) Continuatives.

212. Continuatives are formed by prefixing an imperfect participle to one of the verbs $0 + j\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ or $j\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, used as synonymous with $j\bar{a}$ honā; the participle which always takes the inflected musculine form conveying the idea of a continuous or habitual act or state: e.g.

بکتے جانا hakte jānā, 'to be continually prating,' 'to go on prating.' ghumte rahnā, 'to be ever revolving,' 'to keep revolving.' parhte jānā, عرضن جانا parhte rahnā, 'to continue or go on reading.'

Rem. The participle in these forms is in the locative case, and is used adverbially.

2) STATICALS.

213. In these the imperfect participle of a verb, or rather the elliptical form of the active or progressive participle, precedes another verb, and, as in English, agrees in gender and number with the subject or object of which it forms the attribute. There is nothing approaching to a compound verb in such forms: e.g. (أو المناسخة عنه المناسخة or) موهن منستا من mohan hanstā (or hanstā hūā) jātā hai, 'Mohan is going along laughing;' أتي هي آتي هي آتي هي wòh larkī jo gātī (or gātī hūī) ātī hai, 'the girl who is coming along singing;' من يُو يَرْضَى مِن يَا الله wòh rahtī rahtī hai, 'she remains or continuity is implied in the verb); the idea of duration or continuity is implied in the verb); main-ne usko sotā dekhā, 'I saw him sleeping' (here the concord of the participle is interrupted, because the object is in the da!ive form of the accusetive;

but) مَيْن نے أَسْكُوا دَوزَّت پگڙا main-ne usko dauṛle pakṛā, 'I caught it (while I was) running.'

Rem. The so-called Staticals differ from Continuatives in denoting a temporary or accidental state. The two forms are clearly distinguished in most native grammars, but are strangely misunderstood by European grammarians, who teach that the participle is inflected in Staticals, and not inflected in Continuatives! Now, the fact is, that it is just to indicate duration or continuity (and, occasionally, a habitual state) that the particle or verbal adjective is changed into an adverb and inflected. This is evident from such forms as whether that gayā, 'I wearied through much or continued walking;'

chalte thak gayā, 'I wearied through much or continued walking;'

chalte chalte the jazīre men pahunche, 'Keeping on our way we reached an island;'

chalte chalte is jazīre men pahunche, 'Keeping on our way we reached an island;'

chalte chalte while,'

or 'We keep on singing whilst we stitch.'

- c) Comfounds formed with the Perfect Participle.
- 214. A perfect participle, used as an abstract substantive in the Accusative or the Formative, is prefixed to one of the verbs کرّنا 'to make,' خاصًا 'to go,' and چاصًا 'to desire,' and the compound verb thus formed assumes an intransitive character.¹ Such compounds are of two kinds:

¹ Hence these verbs are never constructed passively with the Agent case in the tenses formed with the perfect participle (see § 185); e.g. with chapke but-ki turah baithe sina kī, 'she seated silent, like a statue, continued to listen,' ek middat talak us gam-men royā kiye, 'for a long period they continued to mourn in that affliction:' main tamam din aur tamam rat pani-men hath pa'on mara kiya, 'I kept striking (out) my hands and legs in the water the whole day and the whole night.' Similarly if any verbal noun be combined with a transitive verb in the same way, the compound verb is intransitive: e.g. do admi dekhā'i drye, 'two men appeared' (gave an appearance); admi ki awaz suna'i di, 'a man's voice was heard.' This, it may be observed, is directly opposed to the teaching of European grammarians. If however the grammarians simply confined themselves to laying down incorrect or unsound rules, the offence might be pardoned; but when they pronounce the composition of standard authors "ungrammatical" because it does not conferm to those rules (as a recent writer does in more than one instance), the offence becomes unpardonable. We may here remark that if there is one point about which an educated native is not likely to be mistaken, it is the use of the Agent case.

1) FREQUENTATIVES OR CONTINUATIVES.

These denote the frequent, continual, or habitual performance of an act, and are formed: a) by adding the verb to a perfect participle, which (being the direct object of the verb) retains the nominative form of the masculine singular under all circumstances: e.g.

jāyā karnā, 'to go frequently,' 'to keep going' (lit. 'to make the going').

ليجيا كرنا bechā karnā, 'to sell habitually.'

royā karnā, 'to weep perpetually,' 'to continue weeping.'

sunā karnā, 'to continue listening.'

" u òh sunā hī, 'she kept listening.' وه سُنا كِي

b) By adding the verb + 'to go,' to a perfect participle used as an abstract substantive; but in this case the verb being neuter, the participle is put in the Formative: e.g.

chale jānā, 'to keep moving or walking on' (lit. 'to go on with or in walking').

kiye jūnā, 'to continue or go on doing.'

2) DESIDERATIVES.

These are formed by adding the verb $= ch\bar{a}hn\bar{a}$, to wish or desire, to a perfect participle used as a verbal noun in the Accusative, and hence uninflected. They express the desire to perform the act or enter the state signified by the participial noun: c.g.

بايا چاهنا چاهنا خاين به jāyā-chāhnā, 'to wish to go.' ويكنا چاهنا dekhā-chāhnā, 'to wish to see.' ويلاما به parhā-chāhnā, 'to wish to read.' مرا چاهنا مستة-chāhnā, 'to wish to die.'

The same forms are also commonly employed to express the fact of an act or state being imminent: e.g. وَهُ جَايَا چَاهَنِي ; wǒh jāyā-chāhtā hai, 'he is about to go;' وُهُ مِرا چَاهَنِي wòh marā chāhtī hai, 'she is about to die;' وي بهاگا چاهني we bhāgā-chāte the, 'they were on the point of running away.'

Rem. a. In these compounds the participles of the verbs أي jānā, 'to go,' and مُرنا marnā, 'to die,' always take the regular forms أمراً jāyā and مراً marā.

 going walking' (the perfect part. may in most cases be conveniently rendered into English by the imperfect); that of the second, 'the fox, lying in wait, was moving about;' and in the third sentence $j\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ is used in the sense of $hon\bar{a}$, so that the translation is, 'I was becoming dead,' etc., i.e. 'I was dying,' etc. As in the case of the imperfect participle, the inflected form of the perf. part. denotes a prolonged or continued act or state: e.g. $b = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2}$

- d) Compounds formed with Conjunctive Participles.
- 215. These are formed by prefixing a conjunctive participle, commonly lc, of the verb $lcn\bar{a}$, 'to take,' to an intransitive verb of motion: e.g.

لَوَ اللهُ اللهُ

biff _ le-una, 'to fly away with'

الے بناگنا le-bhāgnā, 'to run away with.'

le pahunchnā, 'to arrive or come with,' 'to bring'

Rem. That the first member in these compounds is the conjunctive participle, and not the verbal root, as English writers on Urdū grammar call it, is evident enough from the examples given above. Another error of existing grammars in respect of these compounds is the calling them "neuter." We need only point out that the native grammarians do not countenance this view, but term them do not countenance this view, but the native grammarians do not countenance this view, but the native grammarians do not countenance this view, but the native grammarians do not countenance this view, but the native grammarians do not countenance this view, but the native grammarians do not count

this, however, is not the criterion of a transitive, but of a directly transitive verb.

216. Some verbs invariably take an inflected infinitive before them, the infinitive or verbal noun being either in the locative or dative case. These forms, which cannot be regarded as compound verbs, are termed by the grammarians Inceptives, Acquisitives, and Permissives. To these may also be added *Desideratives*.

1) INCEPTIVES,

in which an inflected infinitive precedes the verb الكُنّا lagnā, 'to come in contact (with),' 'to take to,' and hence 'to begin:' e.g. الكُنّا الله bhāgne lagā (الله bhāgne lagā), 'he took to, or began running;' وُهُ رُونِي لَكُنِّي هَي 'wŏh rone lagtī hai, 'she takes to, or begins, crying.'

2) Permissives.

An inflected infinitive is followed by the verb دينا denā

'to give or grant,' and (with the infinitive, as in Sanskrit),

'to allow or permit:' e.g. نع جانے دو jūne do (= أس بعد jūne do (= أس بعد jūne do), 'allow him to go,' 'let him go;'

wŏh mujhe āne diyā, 'he allowed me to come.'

3) Acquisitives.

An inflected infinitive is followed by the verb $p\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, to get or obtain,' and (with the infinitive), 'to obtain permission,' 'to be allowed;' c.g. $\bar{a}ne$ $p\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ ($=\bar{a}ne$ -ko $p\bar{a}y\bar{a}$), 'he was allowed, or got permission, to come;' $j\bar{a}ne$ $j\bar{a}ne$ $p\bar{a}weg\bar{a}$, 'he will be allowed to go.'

4) Desideratives.

An inflected infinitive precedes one of the verbs چاهنا والمقاسة, 'to wish or desire,' المقاسة المقاسة, 'to request permission,' 'to want or desire:' e.g. عالمتا هي wŏh pīne chāhtā hai, 'he wishes to drink,' جانب مانگتا هي jāne māngtā hai, 'he wishes, or requests permission, to go.'

REITERATIVES.

217. It remains to notice the compound forms termed Reiteratives by European grammarians. These consist in the asyndetic connection of two verbs, or participles (most commonly of two conjunctive participles, or two imperfect participles followed by the auxiliary verb), the second of which usually rhymes with the first, and is either synonymous with it, or without any signification : e.g. سوچ ساچ کر soch sach kar, 'having reflected;' بول چال کر bol chal kar, 'having conversed;' سمجها بُجها كر samjhā bujhā kar, 'having explained,' or 'having reasoned;' بغير پُوچپے گجہے ba-gair puchhe gachhe, 'without asking or enquiring;' أن دونون un donon zakhmiyon ko زخمبوں کو گاڑنے دائنے کی فکر میں رہا garne dabne kī fikr men rahā, 'he was busy with the thought of burying the two murdered persons;' کچھے پیس ياس رهے تھے kuchh pīs pās rahe the, 'they were pulverizing something;' مَين هارا تهكا تها main hārā thakā thā, 'I was worn out (and) tired;' اور وُد ایّنا گهر دیکھے بہالے aur wöh apnā ghar dekhe bhāle, 'and he shall look after his own house.' In such constructions the last verb may sometimes be one which, although possessing a signification of its own, is rarely used except in combination with another

verb or particle; e.g. بالله bhālnā (from the Sanskrit root bhṛi), in the last example, and in the word منبهاتنا sambhāl-nā, 'to support,' etc. Similarly دهو دها کر dho dhā kar, 'having washed,' where the form دهو dhā (which sometimes occurs alone) has the same signification as مده dho, and, like it, is derived from the Sanskrit root dhāv, 'to wash.' Under no circumstances, however, can Reiteratives be regarded as compound verbs.

218. It is evident then from the preceding remarks that the compound verbs are, strictly speaking, of seven kinds; namely, Intensives, Potentials, Completives, Continuatives, Frequentatives, and Desideratives formed with the perfect participle, and Transitives formed by prefixing a past conjunctive participle to a verb denoting motion. In these the second member alone is conjugated, the first undergoing no change.

· CHAPTER IV.

PARTICLES OR INDECLINABLE WORDS (- harf).

I. ADVERBS.

- 219. Adverbs are used to qualify any attribute. As in other languages, they may be classified according to their meaning and logical connection, or according to their origin. In the few adverbs which we purpose noticing we shall adopt both these principles of classification, giving the preference however to the latter. Persian and Arabic adverbs will, as far as possible, be kept distinct from those of the Hindī.
- 220. Original Hindī adverbs are not numerous. The following are some of the most common:

182 ADVERBS.

```
(Assent or مان المقام المقام
```

221. Some adverbs are originally nouns or adjectives in the locative case: e.g.

222. Nouns in the ablative case may also be used as adverbs (تميز tamīz, 'the specification'):

223. Adjectives in the *uninflected* form (i.e. in the nom. sing. masc.) are also employed as adverbs, generally when it is intended to express rather the quality of the agent as seen in the act, or after the act, than the quality of the act itself: e.g.

يَّ سِيَانا هَي wöh barā siyānā hai, 'he is very knowing, or cunning.' وَهُ بِرُّا سِيَانا هَي wöh bahut achchhā likhtā hai, 'he writes very well.'

224. The following useful series of adverbs are formed from pronominal bases by means of certain affixes:

PRONOMINAL	BASES.		

	ł	remoir demonstrative. u or w, wa.	i .		correlative. t, tu, ti or ty.
1. Time	اب ab, 'now.'		kab, کب 'when?'	ب jab, 'when.'	نب tab, 'then.'
2. Place	yahān, يباں 'here.'	, wahān وهاں 'there.'	,kahāin كہاں	<i>jahān</i> , جہاں 'where.'	تہاں tahān,
3. Direction	idhar, اِدهر	أدهر udhar,	,kidhar كِدهر	,jidhar جدهر	,tidhar تِدهر
	' hither.' (yūn,	'thither.' (wūn,	whither?' $\langle ky\bar{u}n, \rangle$	'whither.'	'thither.' نيوس or {tyūn, or tyon, ton.

The grammarians would have us believe that these series of adverbs are formed in Hindi or Urdā itself from the pronouns y_0h , w_0^2h , etc., by adding the affixes b, etc.: but there can be no doubt that they are all derived from the Sanskrit, or that, at least, one or two of a series are derived from the corresponding Sanskrit series, and the rest formed after the same model. In the first series, for example, jub and tab spring, most probably, from the Sanskrit $y\bar{a}vat$ and $t\bar{a}vat$, through the Prākrit $\bar{j}\bar{a}va$, $t\bar{a}va$; and ub and kub were similarly formed after wards. That this series is derived from jud, tud, etc., as some suppose, by change of d into b, is highly improbable, for d does not pass into b.

The termination $h\bar{a}n$ of the second series corresponds to the Sanskrit $sth\bar{a}n$, the loc. of $sth\bar{a}na$, 'place' e.g. $tah\bar{a}n = tatsth\bar{a}na$. $H\bar{a}n$, it may be observed, is in common use at the present day as a noun in the locative, signifying 'place,' 'house' e.g. mere $h\bar{a}n$ $\bar{a}m\bar{a}$, 'come to my place or house'; $s\bar{a}hib$ he $h\bar{a}n$ $j\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, 'go to the gentleman's house;' not mere yahan, and $s\bar{a}hib$ he $yah\bar{a}n$.

The termination of the third series is not easy to trace. It would appear to correspond to the Sanskrit tas (a/har = itas), or to the Sanskrit affix ha (dha); e.g. adhar = iha; most probably to the latter, for the Persian word corresponding to idhar is idar = Z and idhar = S anskrit iha.

The termination of the fourth series is supposed to spring from the Sanskrit affix $th\bar{a}$ or tham - v.g. i'tham = Prākrit $a = \text{Hind}\bar{i} \text{ gin}$; but we prefer to derive it from the Sanskrit evam (the Prākrit evvam), and to suppose that the other adverbs of the sories are formed after the model of it.

184 ADVERBS.

Rem. Instead of the forms kab, jab, tab, in the first series, the forms kad, jad, tad, are occasionally used (in Hindī commonly), and the first vowel of the series idhar, etc., is occasionally lengthened, e.g. jīdhar. etc.

225. The adjectives derived from the same pronouns (§ 156) are also employed (in the inflected form generally) as adverbs of manner and degree (measure, quantity): e.g.

Occasionally however, like other adjectives (§ 223), they are used in the uninflected (masc.) form.

Rem. Of the double forms ilne or itte, etc., the first are more generally used.

226. The pronominal adverbs, like most other adverbs, may be intensified by the addition to them of the emphatic particle k k \bar{l} or k \bar{l} i i, the latter form being employed with those of the second and fourth series. E.g. 1) from the first series we get:

ابِعِي abhī, 'this very instant,' 'just now,' 'immediately.'

م المجاء kabhī, 'ever' (کیچی نہیں kabhī nahīn, 'never').

المجاء jabhī, 'hence,' 'for such a reason' (frequently used for tabhī).

تابی tabhī, 'at that very time,' 'thence,' 'for that reason.'

Rem. Hū would appear to be an old form of hī; but it is now only

used, occasionally, with the derivatives from the interrogative pronoun: e.g. $\lambda kabh\bar{u} = kabh\bar{\iota}$.

2) In the second series, the termination $h\bar{u}n$ is elided before the emphatic particle $\ell = h\bar{u}n$ is added; in some cases though the nasal of $h\bar{u}n$ is retained: e.g.

يبيس yahīn (or yanhīn), 'this very place,' 'just here.'
سی wahīn (or wanhīn or wunhīn), 'that very place,' 'just there.'
کبیس نہیں kahīn, 'anywhere' کبیں نہیں kahīn, 'nowhere').

بیس jahīn, 'wheresoever.'
بیس tahīn, 'that same or very place.'

Rem. These forms are all contractions, and the two nasals, though not usually written, may often be distinctly heard in the pronunciation of a native, especially in the words $yanh\bar{n}n$ and $wunh\bar{n}n$; it is not correct therefore to say that they are formed "by changing $h\bar{a}n$ (or $\bar{a}n$) into $h\bar{n}n$ (or $\bar{n}n$)." It may be observed further, that, with the exception of λy somewhere, somehow, they are never used as adverbed of manner, as some grammarians say they are.

3) Examples of the fourth series are:

yūnhīn or youhīn, 'just this way,' 'without any ground or reason.'

َ هُوَنَّهُ عِي wūnhīn or wonhīn, 'in that very way,' 'on that very instant.' jonhīn, 'as,' 'as soon as.'

Rem. These forms never convey a local signification, as the grammarians assert.

- 4) The remaining series take $h\bar{\iota}$ after them for emphasis; as يعني idhar- $h\bar{\iota}$, 'in this very direction,' 'to this place;' أيسي في kaise- $h\bar{\iota}$, 'precisely like this;' يسي في kaise- $h\bar{\iota}$, 'in whatever way,' 'however,' 'how—soever;' كِنْنَى هِي kitne- $h\bar{\iota}$, 'how much soever.'
- 227. Adverbs of *time* and *place* may be used as nouns, and put in the genitive and ablative cases. With the

genitive postposition they become adjectives: e.g. اب کی ab-kī daf'a, 'this time;' یہاں کے باشندی yahān-ke bā-shinde, 'the people of this place.' An adverb of time in the ablative changes its signification from a point to duration of time; as کل سے kal-se, 'since yesterday;' کب سے kab-se, 'since when?' کب سے tab-se, 'since then:' and an adverb of place changes its signification from rest in, or motion to, to motion from a place: e.g. یہاں سے yahān-se, 'from this place,' 'hence.'

Rem. Adverbs of degree are said by some writers on Urdū grammar to be used in the locative case, and to change their signification to that of relative time, e.g. itne-men, 'meanwhile.' It is however more correct to regard itne, etc., in such cases as adjectives qualifying a noun of time understood: e.g. itne 'arse men. Similarly, when itne-men signifies 'for so much' (men being here used for ko, as it often is), itne is an adjective qualifying a noun of price or value understood.

- 229. The same postposition after an adverb of place gives it the signification of motion towards the place, and also of degree: באט פיש yahān tak, 'up to, or as far as, this place,' 'to this degree,' 'so much so;' צאט דעט דעט 'to where,' 'to what extent?' 'how far?'
- 230. The locative case of the demonstrative and relative pronouns may be used adverbially: e.g. إس پر is-par, 'on this,' 'hereupon;' جس پر jis-par, 'whereupon.'

- اليي 231. The pronouns, followed by the postpositions النبو, and السط wāste, may be used as causal adverbs: e.g. is wāste, 'on account of this,' itherefore;' الس السط kis liye, 'on account of what?' 'wherefore?'
- 232. The conjunctive participle is sometimes used adverbially: e.g. $j\bar{u}n-b\bar{u}jh-kar$, 'wittingly,' 'of set purpose.' This participle in many other cases also may be conveniently rendered by an English adverb.'
- 233. Compound adverbs are of frequent occurrence in Urdū. They generally consist of a repeated adverb or noun (the negative na being sometimes inserted between them to add indefiniteness, etc., to the idea), or of two similar nouns or adverbs, or of elliptical phrases.

The following are a few examples:

وهبري دهبري دهبري دهبري وماتت والمتورة والمتوري دهبري دهبري والمتورة والمت

We may here point out that chuphe is not a conjunctive participle, as some of the grammarians term it, but the inflected form of the adjective chuphā, 'silent.' As there is no such verb as chuphā, there can be no conjunctive participle of the form chuphe.

```
"بيت بنت jhat-pat, 'instantly.' جيت بت rāt-o-din, } 'night and day,' 'incessantly.' مات و دِن din-rāt,

hān to, 'yes, indeed.' مان تو nahīn to, 'no, indeed.'
```

For the adverbs formed from the numerals see § 62 et seq.

PERSIAN ADVERBS.

- 234. Persian adverbs are not to be distinguished from other parts of speech by termination or form; and only a few of them are genuine adverbs. They may be classed according to their origin, as
 - a) Nouns in the Accusative Case;
 - 1) Simple Substantives, in the singular or plural: e.g.

```
باز bāz, 'back,' 'again.'
س pas, 'after,' 'then,' 'therefore,' 'hence.'
بار pas, 'after,' 'then,' 'therefore,' 'hence.'
بار bār, 'time' (بار بار bār bār, 'repeatedly,' 'constantly').

bāre (e being the suffix of unity), 'once,' 'at length.'

bārhā (hā being the plural suffix), 'many times,' 'often.'
لرّفا tanhā, 'alone.'

ازقنا إلى المعتارة ا
```

2) Compound Substantives; as

dentially.'

ي قضاكار (= az kārē ķaṣā), 'by the work of God,' 'providentially.'
الكان nāgahān, or ناگاه ناگهای ناگهای shab-o-roz, 'night and day,' 'always.'

شب و shao-o-roz, fight and day, always.

sar-ā-sar, 'altogether,' 'throughout.' سراسر

ايلي كلام المجانة kalām, 'the gist of the matter,' 'in brief.

b) Substantives with a Preposition.

The preposition most commonly met with in Urdū is ba, 'with or by;' but others also occur: e.g.

c). Adjectives, Simile or Compound.

d'. GENUINE ADVERES.

e). Interrogative: eg. li aya, 'whether?' (Lat. num?).

Rem. The adverb of probability and doubt (which is most commonly used in Urdū) is شايد shāyad, 'may-be,' 'perhaps.' It is the third pers. sing. of the aorist of the verb shāyistan, 'to be suitable.' For the adverbs formed by means of the affix خانه āna, and the numeral adverbs, see the section on Persian Constructions.

ARABIC ADVERBS.

235. The adverbs borrowed from the Arabic may be classed under five heads: 1) Particles; 2) Substantives in the nominative case; 3) Substantives (simple or compound) in the accusative case; 4) nouns in the genitive case governed by a preceding preposition; 5) Phrases.

1) Particles.

Extremely few of these occur in Urdū. Examples are: faḥat, 'only,' 'merely' (lit. 'and enough'); \$\mu l\alpha\$ 'not' (used in composition afone).

2) SUBSTANTIVES IN THE NOMINATIVE.

These are not numerous in Urdū. Examples are: بعّد bud, and قبل mim-bud, 'afterwards;' قبل kubl, 'before.'

3) Substantives in the Accusative.

The accusative is notably the adverbial case in Arabie, and hence such adverbs are of common occurrence in $Urd\bar{u}: e.g.$

Rem. Occasionally the tunwin is changed to fatha, the accusative taking the pausal form of the Arabic: e.g. ### gāhirā, 'apparently.'

If the noun is determined by having the article *al* prefixed, or by being put in the construct state, it loses the *tanwin*, and (in Urdū and Persian) in the first case, the final vowel also: *e.g.*

```
البَّتَة al-batta (for البَّتَة albattata), 'decidedly.'
المُحال المُحال المُحال المُحال المُحال المُحال المُحال المُحرف المُ
```

Rem. In some cases, even where the noun is not defined, the tanwin is dropped in Urdū: e.g. $\tilde{a}_{\underline{k}\underline{h}ir}$, 'at last,' for $\tilde{b}_{\underline{k}}$.

4) Noun Governed by a Prefosition.

5) Phrases:

II. PREPOSITIONS AND POSTPOSITIONS.

236. The Urdū prepositions are, for the most part, originally adverbs (that is to say, Hindī nouns in the locative or ablative case, determined by a following genitive), or Persian and Arabic nouns used adverbially in the construct accusative: hence the use of the form $\leq ke$ of the genitive affix when the preposition (or governing noun) is masculine.

237. The genuine *prepositions* are nearly all Persian or Arabic, and invariably precede the noun they govern.

The other prepositions as commonly follow as precede the governed noun.

238. The following are real postpositions, which invariably follow the noun they govern, and for the most part require that noun to be in the Formative:

```
لين binā, 'without' (Sanskrit vinā).

y par, 'on,' 'upon' (S. upari).

tak, 'till,' 'up to,' 'as far as,' 'inclusive' (S. daghna?).

tak, 'till,' 'up to,' 'to' (S. sthāne:—ta'īn governs the genitive).

suddhān, 'along with' (S. sārddham).

samet, 'together with,' 'having' (S. sameta).

se, 'from,' 'with,' 'by' (S. saehā, or perhaps the Prāk. gen. affix he).

kar, 'by means of,' 'on account of,' 'by the name of,' (S. krite).

ko, 'to,' 'for the sake of,' 'for,' etc. (S. krite).

ke (= فلا المنافقة لا المنافقة لله المناف
```

Rem. The postposition بن binā, as also its contraction بن bin, may either precede or follow the noun in the Formative: e.g. بن دانے پانی bin dāne pānī, 'without food.' The word کر kar, as a postposition (in which character it is not noticed by the grammarians), is distinct from the affix کر kar of the past conjunctive participle; examples of its use are: کر مشہور تھا ghar hamārā khāna'ë allāh-kar mashhūr thā, 'my (lit. our) house was famous on account of the house of God; 'نینے تئیس سَوداگر بچه کر مشہور کیا تیا 'jis-ne apne ta'īn saudāgar-bacha-kar mashhūr kiyā thā, 'who had made himself known by (the title of) a merchant's son; 'پنیک کری گارا کر پُکارا کرتے کیوں کی بیکھیں کی مشہور کیا تیا 'kināna' ان ان کی کری گارا کرتے کیوں کی بیکھیں 'پنیک کری گارا کرتے کیوں کی کری گارا کری کی کری گارا کرتے کیوں کی بیکھیں 'پنیک کری گارا کرتے کیوں کی کری گارا کری کی کری گارا کرتے کیوں کی بیکھیں 'پنیک کری گارا کری کی کری گارا کری کی کری گارا کری کی کری گارا کری کری گارا کری کری گارا کری کی کری گارا کری گار کری گارا کری گار کری گارا کری گار کری گارا کری گار کر

nwijhe kallū-kar pukūrā-karte hain, 'they are in the habit of calling me by (the name of) Kallū.' The postposition $\leq ke$ is generally supposed to be, in every instance, merely the inflected form of the genitive affix $k\bar{a}$ with one of the postpositions $p\bar{a}$, $p\bar{a}$, $p\bar{a}$, or $h\bar{a}$, understood. It appears however to be more correct to regard it, with the native grammarians, as a distinct postposition, when it is employed in such constructions as $k\bar{a}$ as $k\bar{a}$, 'he has received a severe injury,' wherein its signification is precisely that of $k\bar{a}$, with which it is no doubt connected (of. § 318 Rem.).

239. The following postpositions (and perhaps others besides), when they follow a noun, may optionally govern it in the Formative or the Genitive:

باهِر bāhir, 'without,' 'outside' (S. vahis).

• ba-gair, 'without' (governs the Formative of pronouns and verbal nouns).

• pār, 'on the other side of,' 'across.'

• pās, 'near,' 'at the side of.'

• pīchhe, 'behind' (S. paśchāt).

• tale, 'under,' 'underneath' (S. tale).

• muwāfiķ, 'suitable,' 'according' (to).

E.g. دروازی باهِر darwāze bāhir (or دروازی باهِر darwāze ke bāhir), 'outside the door;' أس بغَير 'us bagair, 'without him;' ما بادْشاه پاس 'nadī pār, 'across the river;' باد bādshāh pās, 'near or with the king;' مُجِهَة پاس 'mujh pās, 'near or

with me; پیتی پیچیے pīth pīchhe, 'behind (one's) back; '
باؤں تلے pāon tale, 'under foot;' باؤں تلے hājut muwāfik, 'suitable to (one's) need.'

But if they precede the noun, they invariably govern the Genitive: e.g. میري پاس mere $p\bar{u}s$; کے $b\bar{u}hir$ darw $\bar{u}ze$ ke; بغیر اُسکے ba-gair uske; تلے پاؤں کے tule $p\bar{u}$ on ke; $muw\bar{u}flk$ $h\bar{u}jut$ ke.

Rem. When, however, بغير ba-gair governs a verbal noun or an abstract substantive with the force of a verbal noun, this is put in the Formative, even if the postposition precedes: as بغير تحقيق كيد ba-gair tahkīk-kiye, 'without having ascertained,' بغير پروانگي ba-gair parwā-nagī, 'without permission.'

240. The following are the principal prepositions, or postpositions, which, being masculine nouns in the Locative, Ablative, or Accusative case, require the affix \leq to be used with the Genitive they govern:

1) Hindī.

آگے آگے مَّوو, 'before,' 'in front' (Sanskrit agre).

ال بَهُ تُوبِم بُروس بُرِي تَهِم بُروس أَسْهِ bharose, 'in reliance on,' 'trusting to' (S. bhadra + āśā).

ال به bhal, or با bal, 'with—downwards or foremost' (S. bhara).

ال به تُوبِم بُرَي بُرِي بُرِي

¹ It will be seen from the examples given that many Persian and Arabic nouns are treated like Hindī nouns, and put in the Locative or Ablative case to form postpositions: e.g. موالت غير يست إلى المستقادة عنه المستقادة والمستقادة والمستقددة والمستقادة والمستقددة والمستقددة والمستقددة والمستقددة والمستقددة والمستقددة و

يري sire, 'at the extremity of,' (S. śiras).

ه نتگت sang, 'along with' (S. sanga).

ه خاری kane, 'to,' 'near to' (S. karna, 'edge').

ه سقre, 'on account of,' 'through' (lit. 'stricken with,' from mārnā).

ه به المقال المقال

2) PERSIAN.

ונגע, 'inside of,' 'within' (= S. antara).

barābar, 'on a level with,' 'equal to' (bar + ā + bar. 'breast to breast').

banābar or binābar, 'on account of' (Ar. bina, 'building' + prep. bar, 'upon').

jaz, 'except,' 'with the exception of,' (contraction of judā + az).

I We must here protest against the use of يهاي yahān in place of هاي القطاعي العام العام

The following passage is extracted from a copy of the 'Alīgarh (Allygurh) Institute Gazette: ham musalmānoù aur hindu'où donoù hī us ātish-bāzī kī nisbat likhte hani jo unke hān shādī min hotī hai.

We may add that in the matter of this use of $\hbar \bar{a} \hat{a}$, the people of Lakhnau are at one with their brethren of Dehli, and hence its uniform usage in all parts of Hindustan proper.

```
ارُوبُرُو بُرُو بُرُو

ba+r\bar{u}).

میری sipurd, 'in charge or keeping.'

gird, 'near,' 'about.'

chau-gird, 'round about.'

میری nazdīk, 'near,' 'close to' (frequently corrupted into nagīch).
```

The more common form in which the Persian prepositions occur is that of an inseparable (and genuine) preposition prefixed to a Persian or Arabic noun; the compound in such cases being equivalent to the Hindī ablative or locative case: e.g.

از رُوي الله المحتورة مع المحتورة المح

3) ARABIC.

bris, 'because of.' باعث badle, 'in exchange for.'

```
نعد b'ad, 'after.'
 hawāle, 'in the charge or care of.'
 خلاف khilāf, 'in opposition to.'
 zariye, 'by means of,' 'through the medium of.'
   zimme, 'under the charge or responsibility of.'
 سبس sabab, 'because of,' 'by reason of.'
  siwā, مَسُوا siwā, ) 'over and above,' 'besides.'
   selle 'alāwa, 'in addition to,' 'besides.'
  نوض 'iwaz, 'instead of,' 'for.'
   kabl, 'before.'
 قريب karīb, 'near.'
   الْدُنِي الْمَ'ik, 'suitable for,' worthy of.'
 muta'allik, 'depending on,' 'connected with.'
  mushābih, 'like,' 'resembling.'
mūjih, 'because of,' 'by reason of.'
 "muţābik, 'in conformity to.'
 muwāfiķ, 'agrecable or suitable to' (also governs the
           Formative).
```

241. A few of them are compounds, consisting of an inseparable preposition prefixed to a noun in the genitive, or of a preposition following a pronoun: e.g.

```
بدُون hidūn, 'without' (prep. bi + dūn).

bigair (or with pers. prep. ba-gair), 'without.'

mā-bain, 'what is between' (from mā + prep. bain).

mā-t thṭt, 'that which is under' (mā + prep. taḥt).
```

Siwā is regarded by native grammarians as an exceptive particle, united as muzāf, or determined noun, to another noun. The same is the case with the words by warā and had mā-warā, 'beyond,' except.'

- 242. The following are a few examples of prepositions or postpositions which are originally *feminine* nouns, and hence require the affix $\geq ki$ with the genitive they govern:
 - 1) Hindi: اور or, 'towards,' 'in the direction of.' جگہ jagah, 'in place of,' 'in the room of.'
 - 2) Persian: بابت bābat, 'concerning,' 'for,' 'on account of.' علني zabānī, 'from the mouth of.'

 bu-jihat, 'on account of,' 'by reason of.'

 ba-daulat, 'by means of.'
 - 3) Arabie: جانِب jānib, 'in the direction of,' 'towards.'

 ب jihat, 'on account of.'

 خاطر خاطر simt, 'in the direction of,' 'towards.'

 المعامل المع
- 243. The feminine prepositions, when they precede the governed noun, require $\leq ke$ for the genitive affix of that noun: e.g. طرف جناز کے turaf jahāz-ke, 'in the direction of the ship' (but طرف جناز کی طرف jahāz kī turaf, when the word turaf follows the governed noun): similarly اسمده اُسکے اُسکے mānind lurke ke, 'like a child,' بمده اُسکے کے ba-madad uske, 'with his help,' مائند لؤکے کے misl sher-ke, 'after the likeness of a tiger,' although the words mānind, madad, and misl are feminine. This construction will be more fully noticed in the Syntax.

GENUINE PREPOSITIONS.

244. These are borrowed from the Persian and Arabic.

a) Persian. •

jl az, 'from,' 'by,' 'with.'

or & ba, 'with,' 'by,' 'in,' etc. (the former being the inseparable form).

bā, 'with,' 'along with.

be, 'without.'

bar, 'on,' 'upon' (= Sanskrit upari).

tā, 'till,' 'up to,' 'as far as.'

dar, 'in' (contracted from andar).

Rem. To these some add pesh, 'before,' zabar, 'over,' and zer, 'below;' but the first is an adverb, and generally takes the preparation at after it; as pesh az $\bar{z}in$, 'prior to this,' 'before this;' and the two last are compounds: e.g. zabar = az or zi + bar; $zer = zi + \bar{z}r$.

b) Arabic.

245. The Arabic prepositions are of two kinds; separable and inseparable.

1) Inseparable.

bi, 'in,' 'at,' 'by,' 'with,' etc. ($bil\bar{a} = bi + \text{neg. } l\bar{a}$, 'not,' = 'without'). bi, 'to,' 'for,' 'on account of,' (before pronom. suffixes it becomes la). bi, 'as,' 'like.'

2) SEPARABLE.

ind, 'beside,' near,' 'by.' عند 'ind, 'beside,' near,' 'by.' اللي 'ind, 'beside,' near,' 'by.' أولى 'atā, 'till,' 'upto,' 'as far as.' أولى 'atā, 'over,' 'above,' 'upon.' — ma' or هند ma'a, 'with,' 'along with.' ومن 'an, 'from,' 'aftor,' 'for.' من

246. These prepositions generally occur in Arabic and Persian phrases, but they are occasionally prefixed to Hindī nouns, which are then put in the Formative or the Genitive: e.g. پیشاور سے تا کلکتے peshāwar-se tā kalkatte, 'from Peshāwar to Kalkattā (Calcutta);' مع هاتهي کے mư hūthī ke, 'together with the elephant.'

III. CONJUNCTIONS.

247. Conjunctions may be divided into the following classes:

1) Connective.

$$\Delta \lesssim ki$$
, 'that;' 'or.' $y\bar{a}$, 'or;' $y\bar{a}$ — $y\bar{a}$, 'either—or.'

2) Adversative.

to bhī, 'even then,' 'still.' بنكه contrary.'

3) Exceptive.

سگر magar, 'unless,' 'except,' 'save' (=
$$ma$$
, 'not' + gar , 'if').

 $illa$, 'except,' 'save' (= in , 'if' + la , 'not').

4) CONDITIONAL.

5) Concessive.

agar-chi, 'although.' اگرچه pas, 'then.'

تو, 'then.' کوکه go-ki, 'although.'

6) CAUSAL.

az-bas-ki, 'inasmuch as.' چُونْکِه دُهُ الْأَرْسُكُه وَهُمَّاً مُنْكِهُ لَا مُعْدَى مُنْكِهُ لَا مُعْدَى مُنْكِهُ لَا مُعْدَى الْأَرْسُكُهُ لَا مُعْدَى الْمُعْدَى الْمُعْدِي الْمُعْدَى الْمُعْدِمِ الْمُعْدِى الْمُعْدِي الْمُعْدِي

7) Conclusive.

بنابران banā-bar-ān, 'on that ac- پير phir, 'then,' 'therefore.'

يس pas, 'hence.'

الْهُ لَا الْهُ الْمُلْعُلِينَا اللَّهُ اللّ

8) FINAL.

لَّ tā, and كَالَّ tā-ki, 'to the end that,' 'in order that.' ma-bād-ā, 'lest,' lit. 'may it not be.'

IV. INTERJECTIONS.

248. Interjections are mostly sounds or cries expressive of emotion. They may be divided into the following classes:

1) Assent.

E.g. هاں $h\bar{a}i$, or هُوں $h\bar{a}i$, 'yes!' مخبا $achchh\bar{a}$, 'very well!' جِي $j\bar{i}$, 'yes!' (respectful).

2) APPROVAL;

as شاباش $sh\bar{a}b\bar{a}sh$ (= شاد باش $sh\bar{a}d$ $b\bar{a}sh$, 'be happy!'), 'bravo!' wāh $w\bar{a}h$, 'well done!' 'bravo!'

3) Sorrow or Pain;

as ري arc, 'Oh!' ري rc, 'Oh!' (always used as an affix); اري $\bar{a}h$, 'ah!' هائي ' $\bar{a}h$, 'ah!' هائي ' $\bar{a}h$, 'alas!' وأَ يُلا $v\bar{a}c$ and وأي $v\bar{a}-wail\bar{a}$,

'woe!' 'alas!' انَّسوس 'afsos, 'pity!' 'alas!' حَيف haif, 'alas!' مَيف أَسوس 'afsos, 'pity!'

4) SURPRISE;

as اوهو $ah\bar{u}$, or اوهو $oh\bar{o}$, 'Ha!' 'Ho!' 'Strange!' اوهر $w\bar{a}$, 'How fine!' 'strange!' کیا خُوب $hy\bar{u}$ $hu\bar{u}$, 'How excellent!' میکان الله 'subhān allāh, 'Good God!'

5) AVERSION OR CONTEMPT;

as چي $chh\bar{\iota}$, 'fie!' در 'dur, 'away!' 'avaunt!' عي are, 'O!' اربى 'O!' (you fellow).

6) Longing;

as كَاشُكِ kāsh-ki, or كَاشُكِ kāsh-ke, 'would that' (utinam!).

7) Desire for the Presence or Attention of a Person; as أي ai, 'O!' الم أن o, 'O!' هوت 'hot, 'Ho!' (vulgar,—always follows the object of address) اري are, 'O!' 'Ho!' له إلى أو, 'there!' 'enough!' 'peace!'

CHAPTER V.

DERIVATION OF WORDS.

- 249. We purpose, in this chapter, to treat of such Hindī themes as have been derived by modifying forms obtained from the Sanskrit through the Prākrit, as also such as are derived by rules peculiar to the Hindī.¹ With unmodified Sanskrit forms, such as pālak, ānandit, balvān, gopāl, etc., which occur in modern Hindī, we have little or no concern. For Persian and Arabic themes we must refer the reader to the section on Persian and Arabic constructions.
- 250. Derivative words may be classed under the two heads of *primary* and *secondary* formations, according as they are derived from *verbal roots*, or from *nouns*.

I. ABSTRACT NOUNS.

- a) PRIMARY FORMATIONS.
- 251. The simple root of a verb is, in many cases, used as an abstract substantive: e.g.

¹ Nothing like an attempt to give all the themes occurring in Hindī is here made. This would be an almost impossible undertaking, so great is the change which the wear and tear of centures, so to speak, has effected in most Hindī words. The affixes noticed are mostly those of frequent occurrence, respecting which there can be no doubt, whatever difference of opinion may exist as to the sources from which they are derived. We would observe also that, as in the case of the pronominal series ab, hab, jab, etc., it is highly probable that one derived affix has, in each case, served as a model for others, and that these have been used even with words of non-Aryan origin.

In a few words the root vowel is lengthened: e.g.

252. Other abstract nouns are formed from the root, with or without lengthening the root vowel, by means of the following affixes:

1)
$$\stackrel{\cdot}{}$$
 $=$ \bar{a} (= S. affix a); as—

Rem. In some instances the mase. termination \bar{a} is changed to the fem. $\bar{\imath}$, to express some slight difference of signification; as pher $\bar{\imath}$, 'going about,' 'hawking.'

2)
$$\forall n\bar{a}, \ \omega \leq an, \ \omega \leq \bar{a}n \ (= S. \ affix \ ana).$$

The first of these is found in infinitives. Examples of the second are:

In the third the vowel of the affix an is lengthened: e.g.

Here may also be noticed the affix = \bar{i} , which is added to the roots of causal verbs to signify 'cost of,' 'expense for,' etc.; for the sister

dialects afford proof of this affix being a more contraction of i, the fem. form of the affix i $n\bar{a}$: e.g.

يسُوائِي pīswā'ī, 'price paid for grinding' پِسُوائِي pīsnā).

charā'ī, 'price paid for grazing'، چُرائِي charā'ī, 'price paid for washing' دهُلان) dhulānā).

3) تن
$$t$$
; تني $t\bar{\imath}$; (= S. affix ti); as—

Rem. The affix $t\bar{\imath}$, as will appear further on, is also employed in secondary formations.

The original of all these forms is the Sanskrit affix $\bar{a}tu$ (which Bopp traces to the infinitive affix tu): the first, though common in the Urdū and Hindī of Southern India, is rarely used in the North, where the second and third (in which h and w are euphonic) are very common. Examples are:

 In the case of the affix $\tilde{a}'o_{i}$ the t of the affix atu has been elided, and the final vowel lengthened. It is an affix of very frequent occurrence. Examples are:

- Rem. a. Many masculines in $\bar{a}'v$ have corresponding feminines in $\bar{a}'\bar{\imath}$, with the same signification; as $= charh\bar{a}'\bar{\imath}$, 'ascent.'
- *Rem. b.* The affix $\bar{a}hat$ (differently derived however) is also employed in secondary formations, as will be shown further on.
- Rem. c. The affix $\bar{a}'o$ often takes the form $\bar{a}w\bar{a}$ in rustic speech: e.g. chhor $\bar{a}w\bar{a}$, 'release.'
- Rem. d. Native grammarians add $\bar{a}p$ or p to the affixes forming abstract nouns from verbal roots; but we cannot find this termination in any word except $mil\bar{a}p$ (the only example adduced by them), and this is in all probability a mere modification of the Sanskrit $mcl\bar{a}paka$.
 - b) Secondary Formations.
- 253. Abstract nouns are derived from substantives and adjectives by means of the following affixes:

¹ This affix is incorrectly written $\bar{a}w$ by some of the grammarians. It is usual in Hindi, no doubt, to represent final a, after a vowel, by $\overline{\mathbf{q}}$, but this is a more compendium scriptus w; the letter is pronounced a all the same.

2) تى
$$t\bar{\imath}$$
 (= S. affix ti).

This affix, as we have shown, occurs in primary formations; an example of a secondary formation is—

Rem. It is possible however that the origin of this affix is the Sanskrit affix $t\bar{a}$.

3)
$$0.1 \leq \bar{a}n \ (= S. \text{ affix } iman).$$

This affix is derived by eliding the initial i and the m of the Sanskrit affix iman. It forms abstract nouns from adjectives denoting an inherent quality, but it rarely occurs in Urdū; one example is—

Rem. In a few Hindī words the affix iman takes the form $m\bar{a}$: e.g. $garim\bar{a}$, 'weight,' importance.'

The origin of all these affixes is the Sanskrit affix tva; e.g. 1) $tva = vva = ppa = p\bar{a}$: 2) tva = Prākrit tvaņa = vvaņa = ppana = pan and $pan\bar{a}$: 3) $tva = tta = tta = \bar{a}t$, whence $\bar{a}hat$, by insertion of h for euphony. They are all of frequent occurrence. A long vowel in the base may be shortened, and a final vowel dropped, before the affixes $p\bar{a}$, pan, $pan\bar{a}$ are added: e.g.

أَوْهَا لِي buṛhā-pā, 'old age,' from بُورِّها būṛhā, 'old,' 'an old man.' مُورِّها لِي būṛhā-pan, 'littleness,' 'infancy,' 'childhood,' from چهوٿا پي chhuṭā-pā, 'littleness,' 'infancy,' 'childhood,' from چهوٿا پي chhuṭā-pā, 'chhoṭā, 'little.'

التركيس laruk-pan,) 'childishness,' 'childhood,' from التركيس larkā, 'a التركيس larkā-pan,) 'child.'

chiknāhat, 'greasiness,' 'smootnness,' from چگناهت chiknā, 'greasy,' etc.

karwāhat, 'bitterness,' from كرواهت karwāhat, 'bitter.'

Rem. The word التركيس is generally pronounced larkpan by the natives of India; but the dictionaries all give the pronunciation as larakpan.

5)
$$\stackrel{\text{L}}{\smile} ak \ (= S. \text{ affix } ika).$$

The original affix ika is employed in Sanskrit to form adjectives; but in Hindī and Urdū it is occasionally used to form abstract substantives: e.g.

الْبَادُّتُ thandak, (coolness, lit. that which makes coolness) الْجَادُّهِ).

The origin of this affix is probably the Sanskrit noun $\tilde{a} \hat{s} \tilde{a}$, 'desire.' It is added to a few nouns to form abstract substantives, a long vowel in the base being shortened before the affix is added, and final \tilde{a} coalescing with the \tilde{a} of the affix: e.g.

سِتْهَاس miṭhās, 'sweetness,' from مِيتَّها mīṭhā, 'sweet' (S. mishṭāśā). خَتَّا لَهُ khaṭās (or khaṭṭās), 'acidity,' from كَتَّا لُهُ khaṭās (or khaṭṭās), 'acidity,'

II. NOUNS OF AGENCY, ATTRIBUTIVES, POSSESSIVES, APPELLATIVES.

a) PRIMARY FORMATIONS.

254. The original of these affixes is the Sanskrit affix aka; whence by elision of ka, and compensatory lengthening of the preceding vowel, the affix \bar{a} is derived; thence $w\bar{a}$ and $h\bar{a}$ by prefixing w and h for euphony. Again, by elision of k, the form $ay\bar{a}$ is obtained, and this is changed, through the influence of y, into $aiy\bar{a}$, in which ai is pronounced more like $a\bar{a}$ than as the diphthong ai: from $aiy\bar{a}$, by prefixing a euphonic w, the affix $waiy\bar{a}$ is obtained. They are all added to verbal roots to form nouns of agency, and attributives: e.g.

بَهُونَّجا bhūnjā, 'a parcher' (of grain), as in بِهُونِّجا bhar-bhūnjā, from an obsolete بِهُونِّجا bhunjnā, 'to parch.'

gherā, 'a fence' (S. grāhaka, 'inclosing,' etc.), from كَيْرَنا
ghernā, 'to surround.'

ليوا dewā, 'giving,' 'a giver' (S. dāyaka), from ديوا denā, 'to give.' lewā, 'taking,' 'a taker,' from ليوا lewā, 'to take.'

وَرُواها چَرُواها جَرُواها جَرُواها جَرُواها مَعْتُوانا bantwaiyā, 'a sharer or divider,' from بَنْتُوانا bantwaiyā, 'a sharer or divider,' from بَنْتُوانا bantwaiyā, 'to portion out.'

gawaiyā, 'a singer,' from الكريّا gānā, 'to sing.'

In a few words the Sanskrit affix is preserved intact: e.g. گایک gāyak, 'a singer;' گاهک gāhak (S. grāhaka), 'a taker or seizer.'

$$\hat{v}$$
 \hat{v} , \hat{v} , \hat{v} . \hat{v} . \hat{v} .

These affixes correspond to the Sanskrit affix nka, the k of which is elided, and the preceding vowel lengthened by way of compensation. They are used to form nouns of agency and attributives: s.g.

بگاڙو bigāṇā, 'a spoiler,' 'a ruiner,' from بگاڙو bigāṇā, 'to spoil.' بُهلُو bhulāʾā, 'misleader,' 'misleading,' from بُهلُو bhulāʾā, 'to mislead.' بُهسُلُو phuslāʾā, 'a coaxer,' from يَهُسُلُو phuslāʾā, 'to coax.' كمان kamāʾā, 'carning much,' 'laborious,' from كمان retāʾā, 'a filer,' 'a polisher,' from ريتنا retāʾā, 'to file.'

3)
$$\leq \bar{a}k$$
 or $\leq \bar{a}k\bar{a}$, $\leq \bar{a}k\bar{a}$, $\leq \bar{a}'\bar{a}$.

The original of these affixes is the Sanskrit affix $\bar{a}ku$, the k of which is elided in the last, and the u lengthened. They form nouns of agency and attributives: c.g.

پَراک pairāk, 'a swimmer,' from پَرزا pairnā, 'to swim.' الزّاک larāk, إلى المتنا الزّاک الز

بكاؤ bikā'ā, 'for sale,' from بكنا biknā, 'to be sold.' كساؤ kasā'ā, 'astringent,' from كسنا kasnā, 'to bind or tighten.'

These affixes probably spring from the Sanskrit affix āru. They form verbal adjectives (few in number) denoting habitual action or occupation: e.g.

يُوجارِي pūjārī, 'a worshipper,' from پُوجارِي pūjnā, 'to worship.' کهار khilār, 'given to playing,' 'playsome,' from کهیالنا khilārī, 'to play.'

Rem. The affix $\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$ may perhaps be derived from the Sanskrit $k\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$ ($k\bar{a}rin$); in which case the above words would be secondary formations from the substantives $p\bar{a}j\bar{a}$, 'worship,' and khel, 'play.'

These affixes, which correspond to the Sanskrit affix ana, form attributives, or instrumental nouns: e.g.

بيلن belan, (a rolling pin,' lit. 'that which rolls.' بيلني belnī,)

orhnī, 'a covering,' 'a veil,' lit. 'that which covers.' ورَّهني jhunjhunā,)

a rattle,' lit. 'that which rattles.' به jhunjhunā,)

dhaunknī, 'bellows,' or 'that which blows.' كترني katarnī, 'scissors,' or 'that which clips.'

6)
$$\forall t\tilde{a} \ (= S. \text{ affix } at).$$

This affix is used to form imperfect participles : e.g.
الله hanstā, 'laughing,' from هنستا hansnā, 'to laugh.' ديكهنا dekhtā, 'seeing,' from ديكهنا

$$1 - \bar{a}$$
 (= S. affix ta or ita).

This is used to form perfect or passive participles: e.g.

لَيْنَا likhā, 'written,' from لَيْنَا likh-nā, 'to write.' الله hārā, 'lost,' 'overcome,' from هارا hār-nā, 'to lose,' etc.

b) SECONDARY FORMATIONS.

255. The original of this affix is the Sanskrit affix ika, the k of which is elided, and y inserted for euphony. It is used to form nouns of agency and attributives: e.g.

bakheriyā, 'quarrelsome,' 'a brawler,' from الكهماليُّّا bakherā, 'a dispute,' etc.

gadar, 'sheep.' عَادّر يَا gadariyā, 'a shepherd,' from گذريًا

مگینیا makkhaniyā,) 'a butterman,' from مگینی makhaniyān, ' butter.'

Rem. The Sanskrit affix is preserved intact in the word کیتے khaṭṭik, or کیتیک khaṭṭik, 'one who kills and sells game,' (but now generally applied to) 'one who rears and sells poultry.'

This affix, which is one of frequent occurrence, springs from at least three different sources: namely—

a)
$$\omega = \bar{\imath} = S$$
. affix ika ,

forming nouns of agency, attributives, and appellatives; e.g.

جهولي jholī, 'a wallet' (S. jhaulika).
مراو به المعلم ب

b)
$$\zeta = \bar{\imath} = S$$
. affix $\bar{\imath}ya$ or iya ,

forming nouns denoting origin, relationship, etc.: e.g. bhāgalpūrī, 'of, or made at, Bhāgalpūr.'

سمُنْدرِي samundarī, 'pertaining to the sca' (samundar), 'marine. پهاتاي pahārī, 'produced in mountains' (pahār), 'a mountaineer.'

c)
$$\smile -\bar{\imath} = S$$
. affix in,

forming attributives and possessives: e.g.

برهني barha'ī, 'a carpenter' (S. varddhakin).

ياري bhārī, 'having weight,' 'weighty,' 'heavy,' from بهاري bhār, 'a weight,' 'a load.'

يپاري baipārī, 'a merchant,' from بَبپار baipār, 'traffie.' تيلي telī, 'an oil-man,' from تيل tel, 'oil' (S. tailika and tailin). سقائ, 'a gardener' (S. mālin).

These affixes correspond to the Sanskrit affix uka. They are added to substantives to form attributives and nouns of agency, as in the case of primary formations: e.g.

This affix forms adjectives from substantives: e.g.

ييارا pyārā, 'dear,' 'beloved,' from پيار pyār, 'affection.' بيار بيار jhūthā. 'false,' 'a liar,' ,, جُوتُها sachā or sachchā, 'true,' ,, sach, 'truth.'

5)
$$1 - \bar{a}$$
, $1 - \bar{a}$, $1 - \bar{a}$, or $1 - \bar{a}$, $1 - \bar{a}$, $1 - \bar{a}$, affix ta or ita.

This affix is used primarily to form perfect participles; but it is also added to substantives to form adjectives or attributives: e g.

يياسا piyāsā, 'thirsty,' from يِياس piyās. 'thirst.' مُنائ dukhiyā, 'wretched,' 'afflicted,' from دُکھ dukh 'sorrow,' 'pain.'

6) اَوُ
$$l\bar{u}$$
, لَو $l=S$. affix lu :

Forms adjectives or attributives from substantives: e.g.

jhagrālā, 'quarrelsome,' 'a brawler,' from جِكُّـٰةِ الُو jhagrā, 'quarrel.'

كيال dayāl, 'compassionate,' from ديال dayā, 'pity,' mercy.'

This affix, which corresponds to the Sanskrit affix $\bar{a}la$, is used to form possessives: e.g.

يال bhathiyāl, 'with, or having, the stream' (باتيا bhāthā). ياتيا bhāthā). ياتيا jawālā, 'grain mixed with barley as food for cattle,' lit. 'containing barley' (جو jau).

لتَّغِبال lathiyāl, 'having a stick,' 'one armed with a stick ' ($l\bar{a}th\bar{t}$).

In a few words the original possessive signification is lost: e.g. ghariyāl, 'a gong,' lit. 'containing the hour' (gharī).

8)
$$\sqrt[3]{la} = S$$
. affix ra .

This affix forms adjectives from substantives: e.g.

اگلا aglā, 'preceding,' 'former,' from آگا āgā, 'the front,' etc. پنج pichhlā, 'hindermost,' 'latter,' from پنجن pīchhā, 'hindermost,' etc.

دگندها dhundhlā, 'hazy,' 'misty,' from دگنده dhundh, 'haze,' etc. ریتالا retlā, 'sandy,' from ریتالا

9) يا _ irā, يا _ erā, يا _ erā, يا _ elā or ail. يا _ elā or ailā.

These affixes, which are of very common occurrence, correspond to

the Sanskrit affixes $\bar{\imath}r\bar{a}$, $\bar{\imath}la$, ura (ula), or $\bar{\imath}ra$. They form attributives and possessives, often signifying the possession of a quality in an intensive degree: e.g.

The original form of this affix is probably $ula\ (ura)$. It is used to form attributives denoting habit or disposition, and is found in a few words only; $e\ g$.

لَّ الْبَاتِينِ thathol, 'a jester,' 'a wag,' from الْبَاتِينِ thathol, 'fun.' أَبِيتِهِ اللهِ hansor, 'facctions,' 'merry,' 'a wag,' from هنسوڙ hansā, 'laughter.'

The origin of this affix is the Sanskrit adjective $s\bar{a}ra$, which occurs at the end of compounds. It signifies 'full of,' pervaded with,' and is employed in both Hindī and Persian to form possessives or attributives: e.g.

¹ The terminations $er\bar{a}$, $el\bar{a}$, etc., are not always affixes; they often result from the clision of one or more letters in an original Sanskrit word, and lengthening of a short vowel on which the accent falls . e.g. $sanper\bar{a}$ (i.e. $sanp-hir\bar{a}$), 'a snake-catcher,' from the Sanskrit $sarpa-h\bar{a}ra$. The word banela or $banal\bar{a}$, 'wild,' is probably derived in a similar way; it may, however, be formed by adding the affix $el\bar{a}$ to the noun ban, 'a forest.' These remarks apply to other terminations also: for example, $\bar{a}l$ in the word $susr\bar{a}l$, and $\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ or $va\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ in the word $gve\bar{a}l\bar{a}$, are not affixes, but the result of clision of one or more letters: $susr\bar{a}l = Sanskrit \&va\&ru + \bar{a}laya$, 'father-in-law's house,' $gv\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ (i.e. $go\bar{a}l\bar{a}$) = S, $go-p\bar{a}la$, 'a cowherd,' and not $gau-v\bar{a}l\bar{a}$, as Mr. Etherington (Hindi Grammar, p. 128) makes it out to be.

milan-sār, 'sociable,' 'affable,' from مِلْن milan, 'mixing with.' هُرَّ سَار sharm-sār, 'bashful,' from شَرَّ مُسار

12) اشا
$$\leq \bar{a}sh\bar{a}$$
, اسا $\leq \bar{a}s\bar{a}$ (= S. affix $\hat{s}a$).

The signification of this affix is 'full of.' It occurs in a few adjectives, some of which are used as substantives: e.g.

بتاشا hatāshā,) 'a kind of sweetmeat,' 'a bubble,' lit. 'filled with air' batāsā,) (bāt).

This affix is derived from the Sanskrit adjective $k\bar{a}ra$, signifying 'making,' 'doing,' by elision of k, and is added to substantives to form nouns of agency, or nouns denoting trade or occupation: e.g.

مونار sonār, 'a goldsmith,' from سونا sonā, 'gold.' سونار lohār, 'a blacksmith,' from لوها lohā, 'iron.' لوهار kumhār, 'a potter,' from كَمْنار kumbh, 'an earthen pot.'

This affix also, like the preceding, is derived from the Sanskrit $k\bar{a}ra$. It is added to inflected infinitives and to nouns to form nouns of agency, and, affixed to verbal nouns, forms future active participles (§ 160, 2): e.g.

مرنے هارا marne-hārā,) 'one who is dying,' one about to die,' from مرن هار maran-hār,) مرنا marnā, 'to die.'

lakaṛ, 'a wood-cutter,' 'a wood-man,' from لكرّ هارا الكرّ هارا a contraction of لكّرتي lakṝ, 'wood.'

The original of this affix is the Sanskrit affix vala. It is most commonly employed in Hindi and Urdū to form nouns denoting agency, possession, origin, and numerous other relations. Added to infinitives, it often forms future active participles. e.g.

والا جلنے والا میں و

Rem. Hindī nouns ending in \bar{a} must be inflected before the affix is added: e.g. $\lambda = kapre-w\bar{a}l\bar{a}$, 'a cloth-merchant.'

This is not so much an affix as the latter part of a compound, signifying, 'place,' 'inclosure,' 'house,' 'garden,' etc. It is derived from the Sanskrit $w\bar{a}t\bar{t}$. Examples are:

پنواڙي pan-wāṇī, 'a betel-garden,' from پنواڙي pān, 'betel-leaf.' پنواڙي phūl-wāṇī, 'a flower-garden,' from پنواڙي phūl, 'a flower.' ستيوار satī-wāṇ, 'the place where a satī is burnt.' هڙوار hāṇ) are laid.'

III. DIMINUTIVES.

- 256. Diminutives are of frequent occurrence in Hindī and Urdū; in not a few cases, however, though the form is preserved, the diminutive signification is lost. In some instances, moreover, the original from which the diminutive is derived has become obsolete.
- 257. The idea of diminutiveness is frequently expressed by substituting the feminine termination for the masculine: e.g.

أَيْلي uplī, 'small cakes of dried cow-dung,' from uplā. tokrī, 'a small basket,' from tokrā. رَسِي rassā, 'a string or cord,' from رَسِي Various affixes also are employed to form diminutives from nouns, as:

This corresponds to the Sanskrit diminutive affix ka, the k of which is clided, and the final vowel lengthened. • The connecting vowel of this affix is always i, which takes the place of a final vowel in the base, and a long vowel in the base is shortened before the affix is added: e.g.

بِقَبَا biţiyā, 'daughter,' from بِيقِ beţī, 'daughter.' بِيقِتِيا phuriyā, 'a small boil,' 'a pimple,' from پُوتِيا phorā, 'a boil.' چَرِّيا chiriyā, 'a bird,' from چَرِّيا khaṭiyā, 'a small bedstead,' from کَهَاتَ khaṭiyā, 'a bedstead.' (Sanskrit khaṭṭika).

Rem. In the towns, and especially by Mohammadans, the connecting vowel i is dropped, and such words are pronounced phury, chiry, etc.

This affix, like the last, is derived from the Sanskrit affix ka, the difference consisting in the connecting vowel, which in this case is u (changeable to w); and hence the difference of gender in words formed by means of the two affixes, those with $iy\bar{a}$ being feminine, and those with $\bar{u}^{\bar{a}}$ masculine. A long vowel in the base is shortened before the affix is added: e.g.

بَّوا baṭū'ā or baṭwā, 'a small bag' (original not in use). هُرُوا biṭū'ā or biṭwā, 'son,' 'dear son,' from بِيَّا betā, 'son.' مُرُوا mardū'ā, 'a manikin,' 'a contemptible man' (mard).

The Sanskrit affix is preserved unchanged in a few words: e.g. فهولک dholak, 'a small drum' (dhol).

These affixes are all derived from the Sanskrit diminutive affix ra, r and l being interchangeable in Hindī. In the first two no connecting

vowel is used; but in the last two the connecting vowels are i and u respectively, which are lengthened to e and o on account of the accent. A long vowel in the base is generally shortened before the affixes are added. Examples are:

الْمِكْرُا thikrā,) 'a fragment of an earthen vessel' (original, thīk, إُمِكُرُا thikrā,) obsolete).

tukṛā, 'a small piece,' 'a bit,' from tuk, 'a piece.'

يلنگڙي palangṛī, 'a small bedstead,' from palang, 'a bedstead.'

a leg,' from ٿَنگُڙِي tangrī, } 'a leg,' from ٿَنگُري tangrī, }

khujlī (for khajulī), 'itch,' from \$\frac{1}{2} khāj, 'itch.'

"ghanṭālī, 'a small bell,' from ghanṭā, 'a bell.'

murelā, 'a pea-chick,' 'a pea-fowl,' from مور mor, 'a peacock.' مور baghelā, 'a tiger's cub,' 'a young tiger,' from باگنيه bāgh, 'a tiger.'

khatolā, 'a small, or rickety, bedstead' (khāt).

garolā (for garholā), 'a small, or dilapidated, fort,' 'a placo with such a fort,' from garh, 'a fort.'

المِيّْ وَلَا عَبْرُ وَلَا عُبْرُ وَلَا عُمْرُ وَلَا عُمْرُ وَلَا عُمْرُ وَلَا عُمْرُ وَلَا عُمْرُ وَلَا عُمْر

Rem. Some grammarians mention $e_t\bar{a}$, and $o_t\bar{a}$, as diminutive affixes, but these are simply contractions of the words $be_t\bar{a}$, 'son,' and $po_t\bar{a}$ (from $p\bar{u}t$) 'son,' 'young:' e.g. $brahman-e_t\bar{a}=brahman-be_t\bar{a}$, 'a brahman's son,' 'a young brahman;' $hiran-o_t\bar{a}=hiran-po_t\bar{a}$, 'a young deer,' 'a fawn.'

IV. COMPOUNDS.

- a) Nouns with a Particle Prefixed.
- 1) Negative Prefixes : أ a, أ an, نا nā, نبر nir, ن ni.
- 258. The prefix a is used with adjectives, an chiefly with participles and gerunds, $n\bar{a}$ with adjectives or abstract nouns derived from adjectives. Examples are:

الجل a-chal, 'immovable.' الجل a-thā, 'unfordable.' الجل a-chet, 'thoughtless.' الحيد a-lag, 'apart,' 'separate.' النيرها an-parhā, 'unread,' 'illiterate.' النيرها an-jāna, 'unknowing,' 'ignorant.' النيرها an-sunā, 'unheard.' النيرها nā-kārā, 'useless.' المال nā-samajh, 'unintelligent.' المال nir-ās, 'hopeless.' الدهر المال nir-āa, 'fearless.' الله ni-dar, 'good for nothing.'

Rem. These particles are all of Sanskrit origin, and have the same signification as in Sanskrit, but a slight difference is observable in the use of the particle an, it being prefixed in Hindī to nouns beginning with either a vowel or a consonant. For other particles, such as dur or dush, etc., which rarely occur in Urdū, and in Hindī only in words borrowed directly from the Sanskrit, we must refer the student to the Dictionary.

- - 3) Possessive Particle: 🕡 sa, 'with,' having.' (= S. saha).

Examples of this affix are not numerous in Urdū; the following are a few:

سويرا sa-werā, 'morning,' 'dawn' (= S. sa + vela, 'time').
هاره sāṛhe, 'with a half' (= S. sa + arddha, 'half').
هاره sa-chet, 'with caution,' 'mindful,' 'cautious.'

259. Compound nouns, though not nearly so numerous as in Sanskrit and Persian, are by no means few in number; but in no instance is a compound formed of more than two nouns. They may be classed under five

heads: Collective (corresponding to the Sanskrit Dvandva), Dependent Determinative (the Sanskrit Tatpurusha), Appositional Determinative (the Sanskrit Karmadhāraya), Numeral Determinative (the Dvigu of the Sanskrit), Attributive, or Possessive (corresponding to the Bahuvrihi of the Sanskrit).

1) COLLECTIVE COMPOUNDS.

These consist of two words that would naturally be connected by a conjunction: e.g.

bhalū-changā, 'hale and hearty.'

ين رات din-rāt, 'day and night.'

kamtī-baṛhtī, 'deficiency and excess,' 'more or less.'

kahā-kahī, 'altercation.' کہا گہے

mā-bāp, 'father and mother,' 'parents.'

In many instances the conjunction is expressed: e.g.

آب و هُوا آب و هُوا

"rāt-o-din, 'night and day.'

rāt-o-rāt, 'in the middle of the night,' 'all night long.'

And in some cases the place of the copulative conjunction is supplied by the Persian conjunctive particle \bar{a} : e.g.

Under this head may also be classed the compounds in which one of the words is a meaningless one, used merely to rhyme or jingle with the other: as

adlā-badlā, 'exchange,' 'alteration.' الأبدلا aros-paros, 'neighbourhood.'

" ulat-pulat, 'higgledy-piggledy,' 'topsy-turvy.' ألت يُلْت

bhir-bhar, 'crowd,' 'bustle.'

2) DEPENDENT DETERMINATIVE COMPOUNDS.

This class comprises compounds in which the last word governs the first, which is therefore always in the Formative. Such compounds are of frequent occurrence: e.g.

انْقا گهر anṭā-ghar, 'a billiard room.'

ankh-michaulī, 'blindman's buff,' lit. 'covering the eyes.'

angarkhā (i.e. ang-rakhā), 'a coat,' lit. 'body-protector.'

بَاكَدُّور bāg-dor, 'a long rope by which horses are led,' lit. 'bridle-rope.'

يهڙ بيُوٽِجا bhar-bhūijā, 'a parcher of grain,' lit. 'one who parches (grain) in an oven' (bhat).

تل حِتّا til-chaṭṭā, 'a cockroach,' lit. 'oil (tel)-licker.'

ديس نكالا des-nikālā, 'banishment.'

پنچگِي pan-chakkī, 'a water-mill.'

ريل گاڙي rel-gāṛī, 'a railway carriage.'

. بهوجپور bhoj-pūr, 'name of a town,' lit. 'the city of Bhoj.'

lakh-patī, 'rich,' 'a millionnaire,' lit. 'owner of a lac.'

3) Appositional Deferminative Compounds.

In these compounds the first word stands as the predicate of the second: e.q.

بهلمنسائي bhal-mansa'ī, 'humanity,' 'benignity.'

chor-bālū, 'a quicksand.' حيور بالو

تَالُو rat-ālū, 'a yam,' lit. 'a red (or purple) root.'

"mājh-dhār, 'midstream.'

mahājan, 'a banker,' lit. 'a great man.'

mahā-rāj, 'majesty,' 'excellency,' lil. 'great king.'

4) Numeral Determinative Compounds.

In these the first word is a numeral, which stands as a predicate of the following noun: e.g.

دوبهر do-pahar, 'midday,' noon.'

الله du-paṭṭā, 'a kind of veil,' lit. 'two breadths.'

الله pach-maḥall, 'five stories.'

الله chār-ānkhen, 'the eyes of two people meeting,' lit. 'four eyes.'

الله chau-māsā, 'the rainy season,' lit. 'four months.'

الله chaurāhā, 'a cross road,' 'a place where four roads meet.'

5) ATTRIBUTIVE OR POSSESSIVE COMPOUNDS.

These always stand as predicate to a subject. The various determinative compounds may be used as possessives by changing them into adjectives. Examples are:

ادهمُوا ادهمُوا ادهمُوا ادهمُوا ادهمُوا ادهمُوا ادهمُوا ادهمُوا المرابع المرا

Possessives may also be formed from such compounds as have a particle for the first member: e.g.

ه سلونا sa-launā, 'salted,' 'seasoned,' 'beautiful,' 'piquant.' لأهناكا ku-dhangā, 'unmannerly,' 'rude.'

PART III.—SYNTAX

CHAPTER VI.

I. OF THE PARTS OF A SENTENCE.

- 260. Every sentence (a sum or total of words) consists necessarily of two principal parts, the subject, or that of which something is asserted, and the predicate, or that which is asserted of the subject.
- 261. The subject of a sentence is either a noun (substantive, or adjective used as a substantive, pronoun, or infinitive), or a pronoun implied in the verb; the predicate is either a verb alone, or a verb with an adjective or substantive annexed as a predicative noun, by which the subject is defined and described: e.g.

Rem. Urdū grammarians call the predicate of a sentence the مُسند that which leans upon (the subject), or the attribute; and the subject, the مُسند اليّه that upon which (the predicate) leans, or that to which something is attributed.

262. The verbs which are generally used in connection with a predicative noun subjoined, are غرب في , etc., and tr, etc., by or 'to be,' or 'become,' and others which add some modifying idea (as duration, continuity, permanence, etc.) to the simple one of existence: e.g. نظر الله 'to come out,' 'turn out to be;' نظر الله 'to appear,' 'seem' (to be); نظر الله 'to continue or remain;' نظر الله 'to sit down,' 'to be fixed or settled;' نهر 'to stay,' 'stand,' 'last,' and such like; as also the passives of verbs which signify to name, make, call, hold for anything, etc. (\$\§\ 349, 351), to which the words which denote what a thing is named, what it is made, and for what it is held, are subjoined without any further addition: e.g.

even he became an idolater.' وُه بِيِي برهّمن هوگيا 'you did not become any one's friend.' تُو دوست كِسي كا نهُوا تها 'eventually that same thought of آخِروُهِي سوچّنا ميرا صحيح نِكُلا mine proved correct.'

'living appears difficult.' زِنْدگِي دُشُوار نظُر آتِي هَي النار آتِي هَي أَنْدُولِي دُشُوار نظُر آتِي هَي he was (remained) present till twelve o'clock.'

'my surmise proved correct.' ميرا منْصُوب ٿيمبك بَيْقها

whereby our business proves to be 'جس سے همارا کام عداوت کرنا bearing enmity.'

bearing enmity.'

' نام أَسْكَا كُلُو رَحْهَا گيا (the carriage was made stationary.' نام أَسْكَا كُلُو رَحْهَا گيا (مَهَا گيا)

it was not considered (held to be) وُه أَيكُ أَيْسِي زبان نهِيں سَمْجِعِي such a language.'

263. Instead of being joined to a predicative noun in the nominative, the verbs تها, هي, etc., may be combined with some other expression which serves to describe or

define them; as with a genitive, وَهُ بِرِّي قِيمت كَا هَي 'it is of great price;' كتاب كلم چار طرح كا هَي 'discourse is of four kinds;' or with a locative case, كتاب كبر پر هَي 'the book is at home;' or with a postposition and the noun it governs, ويتا هي 'there is a leopard in Zaid's possession;' or with an adverb of place, to denote the place or relation in which a thing is, وُد يهال هَي 'he is here,' وُد يهال هَي 'the city was near;' or with an adverbial phrase which denotes way or manner, state or condition, جو بانسي كي اندر سي سر نكالي تي 'which were with their heads out of (their) holes.' The following are used impersonally: خَير هَي 'it is well,' آيسا هُوا 'it happened thus.'

234. The same verbs, as also be and the other verbs alove cited, may also be used as self-subsistent (or attributive) verbs: as—

'on others has fallen (exists) the نَهُوا تَهَا لَعُمْ جُوهُ ظُلُمْ جُوهُ عُلِمٌ لَمْ وَمُجْبَهِ يَهُ لَمُ الله الله tyranny which did not fall on me.' في جب تلك تهيي حب تلك تهيي حب تلك تهي وxisted.' فاضح كو سَودا هُوا

Rem. A sentence of which the predicate is a self-subsistent verb is called by Urdū grammarians a verbal sentence (جُمَّلُ فِعْلَى), the subject of which they term فَعْل , the agent, and the predicate, فَعْل the action or verb; whereas a sentence whose predicate consists of a

¹ Mr. Dowson ($Urd\bar{u}$ Grammar, page 113) finds fault with this sentence because it is not constructed thus \cdot jin-ne $b\bar{u}nbh\bar{t}$ -ke andar-se sir nikāle the. The sentence is, however, quite correct. The mistake is Mr. Dowson's in supposing that the verb the is here used as an auxiliary. The phrase $b\bar{u}nbh\bar{t}$ -ke andar-se sir-nikāle ($h\bar{u}$ 'e) is the adverbial complement of the verb the, and shows the state or condition ($h\bar{u}$) of the subject. Numerous examples of the same construction are to be found in the Khirad Afroz, as also in more modern works.

non-attributive verb (فِعَلِ نَاقِص an incomplete or defective verb), is called a nominal sentence (جُمَلُهُ إِسْمِيّة), and its subject is termed مُبْتِدا the inchoative, its predicate, خبر the enuntiative or announcement. An affirmative sentence is called جُمَلُهُ فِعَلِيّةٌ خبريّة according as it is a verbal or a nominal sentence; an imperative or interrogative sentence is called جُمَلُهُ إِنْشَائِيّة a sentence expressing a command or wish.

265. The predicate may be more accurately defined by adverbs and by substantives (or words used substantively) in certain cases (and by postpositions with their nouns) which denote the *object* of the action asserted, and the circumstances attending it: as—

(he) used to apply his mind intently رعِيَّت كِي داد رسِي ميں خُوب to dispensing justice to his subjects.'

266. A substantive may be connected in a certain relation with another substantive, in order to define it more accurately: e.g. خاک کا قالب 'an earth-mould.' Substantives may also be defined or characterized more closely by adding to them other substantives descriptive of the same person or thing: as—

'the king of the birds, Shāh-murg' طائِروں کا بادّشاہ شاہ مُرّغ the sage, Bedpā'e, the Brāhman.'

The subjoining of these is called apposition, and that which is subjoined, the appositive (; the follower').

Every substantive may also be defined by having an adjective (participle, or genitive) added to it: an adjective which is immediately connected with the substantive is called attributive (جَلْتِي آگ 'a good man,' جَلْتِي آگ 'burning fire,' ميري كِتاب 'my book'), to distinguish it from

that which is used as a predicative noun with a non-attributive verb: as کتاب اچپي هَي 'the book is good.'

267. If a determined noun (المرابع معرف —i.e. a proper name, a personal, demonstrative, or relative pronoun, or a noun governing the genitive of any of these) and an undetermined noun (المرابع نكره) are placed in juxtaposition, a non-attributive verb following, the mere fact of the former being determined and the latter undetermined shows that the latter is the predicate: e.g. مرا بهائي بيمارهي 'Mohan is a fool,' موهن احمق هيرا بهائي بيمارهي 'my brother is sick.' But if the two nouns in juxtaposition are both determined, or both undetermined, either may be subject or predicate: e.g. 'this is your book,' or 'your book is this;' يه تُمهاري كِتاب هي 'man is a human being,' or 'a human being is man.'

268. The predicate verb as (or the verb and predicative noun) is sometimes omitted, especially in poetry, and in brief proverbial sentences: e.g.

'no one either has any concern with ندکِسِي کو کِسي کے نفّے سے غرض نہ the benefiting, or anything to do with the injuring, of another.'

همارِي بلا کے ساتھ هُي =) همارِي بلا سے علاقہ هَي =) همارِي بلا سے 'it rests with (concerns) my evil destiny.'

269. The predicate is also omitted in sentences which contain an imprecation; as—

سر پر پر 'may sorrow befal thee' (lit. 'dust on thy head').

In such sentences the predicate is generally the Aorist of the verb يُزْنا 'to befal,' 'to alight on.'

II. OF THE ORDER OF THE WORDS IN A SIMPLE SENTENCE.

270. The most simple arrangement of the words is this, that the subject, with its adjuncts, stands first, and the predicate follows in such a way that the verb usually stands last, in order to combine the whole proposition (اكام تام), while the object and the object of relation, or the predicative noun, with the other definitions of the verb (the ablative or locative case, postpositions with their nouns, adverbs), are placed in the middle, the object generally preceding: c.g.

'Zaid's brother is very learned.' زید کا بھائیی بڑا عالِم هی 'he was sleeping soundly in the house.' فرد گھرکے اندر سے خبر سوتا تھا 'each single sentence involves a thousand meanings.'

(I) so convinced my mind of the evil خیانت اور چوری کِی بُرائِی دِل of perfidy and dishonesty.'

(the fear of their brethren prevents اور تَحقیق سے مانع هی

But if the object be so closely connected with the verb as to form with it a so-called nominal compound, or if the other words used to define the predicate are considered of greater importance, or are first thought of, the object is placed nearest the verb: as—

the truth.'

نه رحِیّت کِی داد رسِی میں 'he used to apply his mind intently to dispensing justice to his subjects.' مارا عِلْم سب کاموں سے همکو 'our knowledge hinders us from (progress in) all affairs.'

271. If the verb has two objective complements expressed, one direct and the other indirect (§ 348), the latter generally precedes the former; but if the latter be the antecedent of a following relative, or in any way closely connected with what follows, or any stress be laid on the direct object, this is placed first: as—

نَمُونُوع عَلَم كَا أَسِ كَبَّتِ هَيں 'that thing which is treated of in a science is termed (lit. they term) science.' میں بیان کیا جاوی the subject-matter of that science.' وُد تَهیلِي أَسْكو دِکهلائِي

272. The simple arrangement of the words may however be so far departed from that the object may lead off the sentence, and this not only for the sake of emphasis, as is generally supposed, but even where no emphasis is desired: as كَثُو كُو مُوهِن مَارْتا هُي 'Mohan is beating Kallū.' This is especially the case if the predicative noun be in the locative, or if a noun in the dative or other case be used with one of the verbs تها, في , etc., to denote possession (§ 340): as—

'is there any one in the house?' گَهُر مِمِيں كُوئِي آڏَمِي هَي 'is there any one in the house?' ''madness has happened to (possessed) Nāṣiḥ.' 'there is a leopard in Zaid's possession.'

The following are examples of a predicative noun, or an object being placed first for the sake of emphasis:

'Zaid is a fool.' اخْمَق هَي زَيد 'Yaid is a fool.' اخْمَق هَي زَيد 'where have you taken those books to?' أَن كِتَا بُوس كُو تُو كَهَا لِهِ كَيَا هَي 'whatever you say, that same (I) will do.'

The relative pronoun however, as objective complement, usually precedes the subject.

Rem. The object may even take the last place in a sentence if that be the most strikingly emphatic, or if it be desired to contrast it (or make it rhyme) with another object in a co-ordinate sentence: e.g. مال كو أور عاقِل كمال كو 'A fool seeks wealth, and a wise man perfection.' This construction, however, is generally regarded as irregular and feeble, and should not be imitated.

273. The arrangement of the words in an interrogative sentence is not generally different from that in an affirmative sentence: as يَهُ 'who is in the house?' 'who is in the house?' 'what matter is this?' The interrogative particle يَا نَعْ often placed at the beginning of an interrogative sentence, as 'what! has the gun fired?' or simply, 'has the gun fired?' But it is more commonly omitted (unless used simply to express surprise, reproof, etc.), and then, in the absence of an interrogative, the context alone must decide whether the sentence is interrogative or not. In conversation, the tone of the voice is always a certain indication.

Rem. The poetical arrangement of words is distinguished from that followed in prose by a much greater freedom, and also by the circumstance that it is regulated not only by the sense and emphasis, but often by the necessity of the verse. The freedom is shown in the circumstance, that words which are connected together in meaning, and in prose would stand together, are often separated, and words which in prose have a definite place assigned to them, are transposed to another part of the sentence. The following are examples:

when unbelief (what constitutes unbelief) has ' هُوًا جب كُفَّر ثابِت هَي been proved (impressed on the mind, realized), it is a sign of true belief (Saudā).' 'as long as the power of endurance existed,

as long as the force of restraint lasted (Mūmin Khān).'

. 274. Λ Substantive or Adjective in Apposition (שוש the follower, or appositive) follows the noun to which it refers (the متَّبُوع, that which is followed), and is put in the same number and case, the two nouns being treated as a compound phrase, and the governing postposition (if the nouns be in an oblique case) placed after the last alone: as-

'the boys are all come.' لزَّك سب آئے هيں . Kallū, your brother, is standing outside کُلُو تیرا بھائی باہر کھڑا ھی 'by my (lit. our) master Sindbad.' هماري آقا سِنْدْباد نے 'he beat Mohan's brother, Kallu.' أُسْن موهن كے بھائيي كلُّو كو مارا the counsel of the sage Bedpā'e, the تعاجت Brāhman.'

having gone to the bird-king, Shah- طائِروں کے باڈشاہ شاہ مُرغ کے '.murg باس جاكر

275. Similarly if two or more nouns are connected by asyndeton, or by an expressed conjunction, they are regarded as in apposition, and the postposition governing them in an oblique case is placed after the last alone: as—

'between the evil and the good of it.' 'the evil of perfidy and dishonesty.' خِيانَت أُورَ حَوْرِي كِي بُراثِي 'to (both) high and low of (your) subjects.' 276. If the nouns so connected be in an oblique case of the plural, the last alone is commonly (but not invariably) put in the Formative plural, the others taking the form of the Formative singular: as—

by the small and the great rejoicings 'چپوٹے بڑوں نے خُوشِیاں کِیں 'were made.'

'in mountain caves and desolate places.' پہاڑوں کے غار اُور وَیرانوں میں

Rem. Urdū grammarians, it may be observed, recognize six kinds of appositives (توابع): 1) تاكيد the strengthening or corroboration, which is of two kinds; a) تاكِيدِ معنوي the corroboration in meaning, and b) تاکِیدِ لفظی the verbal corroboration, which consists in the emphatic repetition of the word itself, whether that word be a noun, verb, er particle. Examples of the first are : زَيد خُود آيا 'Zaid himself came,' لَوْكَ سَبِ آئِي هَيِي 'the boys are all come,' 'I will (immediately) send 'کتاب کو بجنسِ آپ کے پاس بھیجتا ھُوں the book itself to you.' The appositive in this case may be any word that strengthens the idea of totality or of self already contained in the or noun that is followed. Examples of the second kind are 'whatever words;' جو جو باتيں 'Zaid is come, Zaid;' زيد آيا زيد 'cach ایک ایک فِتْره' what various misfortunes;' کیا کیا مُصیبتیں single sentence; ' مارا مارا زَيد نے 'Zaid beat (him), beat (him); the description, نعت (Yes! Yes! I did (it).'-2) هاں میں نے کیا or the qualification. This may refer to the mathū' either directly, in which case it is a simple adjective, or indirectly, in which case it is an adjective sentence (a qualificative or relative clause), as کتاب جسکا the book, the leaf of which is torn.'—3) بدل (the book, the leaf of which is torn.'—3 substitution, or permutative, which is of four kinds; a) بدل گل the sub-كُلُّو تيرا بهائِي ميري هال آيا تها stitution of the whole (for the whole); as كُلُّو تيرا بهائِي ميري 'Kallū, your brother, came to my place;' b) بدل بعّض the substitution of this part (for the whole), as پہاڑ ڈالا

277. A Genitive may either precede or follow the substantive by which it is governed: as—

'the principal and the profit thereof.' اصّل و نفّع أَسْكا 'the character of the newspaper.'

But if emphasis or contrast is desired, the genitive is usually placed before the governing noun; as وُد ميرِي كِتاب 'that is my book.'

278. When the governing noun is preceded by an attributive, the genitive may either follow the governing noun or precede the attributive: as—

ناهِرِي عِبارت أُسَكِي 'its apparent wording or tenour.' موهن كا چهوٿا بهائي

279. The genitive may even be separated from its governing noun by other words, as adverbs, interrogative pronouns, etc., so long as they do not make the construction ambiguous or obscure: as—

'how can I believe you ' مَيْں تيرا كيُونْكر اِعْتِبار كُرُوں ' what is your name '

'what is your pleasure respecting it?' نیری اُسّمیں گیا مرضی هی 'what is your pleasure respecting it?' اُسّکِی کھوپٹری کا اِس مَیداں کے cup for the wild beasts of this desert to drink water out of.'

280. Adjectives.—The usual position for an attributive adjective is immediately before its substantive; as ذهبين 'an intelligent lad;' نجبا آدمي 'a good man.' But if the adjective in any way particularizes the substantive, it usually follows, especially if other descriptive phrases accompany it: as—

bring good rice.' چاٽول اچها لانا 'bring good rice.' مست آويز پِکِي لِگهوالو 'have a sound acknowledgment (of the transfer) written.'

there is a very large house in that 'أس كُوچے ميں ايک حويلي lane.'

المبي هَي هَي المبي الم

with an elegant head-dress nicely arranged, came out.'

281. Similarly the demonstrative pronoun, which usually precedes the substantive, may, for the sake of

emphasis, follow it: as طبيب وُه اچّها هَي جو 'He is a good physician, who,' etc. (lit. 'that physician is good,' etc.)

282. Great emphasis may be given to an adjective by

separating it from its substantive, and placing it at the end of the sentence, so as to let it produce a more independent impression: as—

'there wasa very deep mountain gorge.' ایک پہاڑکا درہ تھا۔ نہایت عِیق

283. Adverbs.—An adverb which belongs to an adjective or another adverb almost invariably stands before it: as ایک نبایت عمیق دره 'a very deep gorge.' So also an adverb which belongs to a verb usually stands immediately before it: as ایک نبای خُوشِي کبیلا کُودا کرّتي (she) used to romp and play with them right merrily.' But it may be placed, for the sake of emphasis, at the beginning of the sentence, or inserted without emphasis between the more prominent words. If however a whole clause is qualified, it is placed at the beginning: e.g.

and inasmuch as his path had never اور چُونکِ پہٹلے کیجِی اُسْکا گُذر lain that way before.'

ناگهاں ایک جزیرہ سرسبز أور 'suddenly a verdant and very beautiful island came in sight.'

284. The negative particle, like other adverbs, usually precedes the verb; but if the tense be a compound one, it may also stand between the auxiliary and the participle: as—

ال was not aware of this.' میں یہد نہ جائتا تھا 'I was not aware of this.' میں یہد نہ جائتا تھا 'no one used to understand the Government regulations,' or lit. 'any one did not understand,' etc.

The negative is never used *adjectively*, but is always an adverb qualifying the verb in a sentence.

285. Conjunctions, as connecting and showing the relation between sentences, naturally precede the members they serve to introduce: as—

but still the capacity of manifesting ' مگر أُس ميں ظُلَهُور كِي قابِلِيّت (itself) existed in it.'

(but this also is the opinion of certain ' ليكِن بعض عُقلا كِي يِهِ بعِي رائي sages.'

III. CONCORD OF THE SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

- 286. The verb of the predicate agrees with the subject in number, person, and gender, unless it be of the form in which personal terminations are found, viz.: the Imperative, the Aorist, and the fragmentary verb هَمْ , هُون , etc.; these admit of no change of form to indicate gender: e.g. 'these admit of no change of form to indicate gender: e.g. 'the girl 'the girl will go;' ميرا باپ جائيگا 'we (masc.) will read;' هم هر شهينگي 'we (fem.) will read;' هم هين څون 'it is I' (masc. or fem.); هم هين (masc. or fem.).
- Rem. a. Not only are the personal pronouns as subjects often omitted, but a substantive as subject is also occasionally understood: e.g. 'life passed in great comfort,' where زندگي or some similar word is understood.
- Rem. b. When a superior addresses an inferior, he frequently speaks of himself in the first person plural: e.g. هم آئينگ 'it is I;' هم هُين 'I will come.' Similarly another is commonly addressed in the second person plural, as in English; e.g. هم کُون هو 'who are you?'
- 287. The predicative participle or adjective (if this admit of a feminine being formed from it) is regulated by the subject in gender, number and case; and similarly

every adjective (or genitive), whenever possible, agrees with the substantive with which it is connected: as-

(the prince stood (became stationary) شادزاده روش ير کهڙا هُوا on the walk.'

تساعت متعباً السَّكِي إطاعت 'all the bees yield him obedience.' کرتی هَیں 'these misfortunes were written in (my) یے مُصِیبتیں قِسْمت میں لِکھی

destiny.

destiny.' تَجِين destiny.' أُدُ لِبَاس بَعِي مَيلًا كُچيلًا هو جاتا and tattered.'

'life is dear to one under all circum' جان هر حال میں پیاری هوتی

stances.' هَي stances.' when his desire was (became) satisfied.' you are (= thou art) an inhabitant of تُم دهّلي کے رمّنے والے هو

'all men are not alike سب آدمی ایک سے نہیں ہوتے

- Rem. a. When the subject is a noun (pronoun) which has the same form for the singular and plural (as in the last of the above examples), the predicate is a guide to the number of the subject.
- Rem. b. Perfect concord in number of the feminine participles in the above examples would require the forms کرتیں, کرتیں, but such forms are now obsolete. (§ 169, Rem.)
- 288. A plural predicate is often connected with a personal subject in the singular, as a mark of respect or politeness: as-
- His Majesty was (became) much مهاراج سُنكر بهُت خُوش هُوني pleased on hearing (it).
 - your Honour's observation is to the point' (lit. 'your Honour observes justly').

Rem. The third person plural is sometimes used without a defined subject to denote a common saying, or the general use of a term, or a general opinion: as کتے کیے 'they say or call.' But the noun of Agency of the same verbs may be employed as subject: e.g. کہتے کیے 'the tellers relate.'

289. Some Arabic plurals (broken and regular), as اخوال 'circumstances,' السّباب 'property,' 'articles,' 'investigation,' السّباب 'a casualty,' and perhaps a few more, are commonly regarded as singular collectives, and connected with a singular predicate; others, as أوليًا 'saints,' والله 'great men,' مشائح 'elders,' and one or two more, are used both in the singular and plural; in the use of these

Misled by the repeated use in the Bag o bahar of certain Arabic broken plurals with singular verbs, the European grammarians appear to think that all, or nearly all such plurals may be constructed with a singular predicate, or have a singular adjective connected with them. But so far is this from being the case that very few (perhaps not more than six or eight) of these plurals are used as singular collective nouns. In تِ طَاوِّس مبن جواهِر جزَوايا - جوَاهِر خريده the Bag o bahar we find and other instances of broken plurals treated as singular collectives which scholars of the present day by no means approve. The following remarks on the above constructions by a scholar of distinction, M. Shaikh 'Abdullah of Cawnpore, will show what opinion native scholars hold respecting them: يَوْنُكِ جواهِر جمّع هَي جزُّوايا فِعْلِ مُنْرِد لانا صحِيم نهيس هي - صحيم جزُّوائي هي - مگر بعني الْفَاظِ جَمْع كُو أُرْدُو مِين مُفْرِد بهي مُسْتَعْمَل كُرْتِي هَين - جَيسِ لَفْظِ أوليها أورمشائِخ _ شايد نواح دهّلي مين جواهِر كوبهِي مُفّرد بولّت هون _ مگراِس طرف مُفرد مُسْتعْمَل نہیں هوتا۔ نہ کسی دِهْلِی والے سے سُنا نہ کسی کے کلام میں دیکھا۔ میر حس کی مثنوی میں ایک جگہہ جواهرجڙا آيا هي *

Did space permit, we could here add the opinions of distinguished Dehli scholars also. It is to be hoped, however, that the above will suffice to show that the $B\bar{a}y$ o bahār cannot be safely taken as a perfect representative of the Urdū of the present day.

plural forms the student must be guided by the practice of the best modern writers. Examples are:

'as much property as there was in the house.' •

this is my case' (these are my circumstances). ميرا بيه اخوال هي 'this is my case' (these are my circumstances).

'I am a chief and a great personage کا هُوں

of this city.'

أرى نتختيقات هو رهي هي 'investigation is taking place.' تختيقات هو رهي هي (a casualty has occurred.'

Rem. اسّباب is also constructed as a plural, especially when it signifies causes or means: e.g. اسّباب کیا هَیں 'what are the causes of this progress'

290. If two or more subjects of different persons have a common predicate, the subjects are arranged in the order of the persons, beginning with the first, and the predicate is put in the first person plural if one of the subjects is of this person, and in the second person plural if the subjects are of the second and third persons: e.g.

let me and you run' (lit. us and you). هم تُم دَوَّزِين I and the other (man) my companion مَيں اَور وُه دُوسرا ميرا ساتهي fled thence.'

you and Mohan together (lit. having united) beat him.'

291. Two or more connected subjects of the third person (singular or plural), when they denote living beings, usually take the predicate (verb, participle, adjective) in the plural, and the predicate agrees with them in gender,

if they are all of the same gender; but if they are of different genders, the masculine is preferred: e.g.

'Mohan and Kallū came to my place.' موهن أور كلُّو ميرى هار، آئيے 'Amīran and Naṣīban were going to school.' جاتِي تَهِيں 'his mother and father are dead.' أُسْكِي مَا باپ مَرْكَلُمْي هَيِي

an old man and his old woman arrived 'ایک بُورِّها اَور اُسْکی بُرِّهِیا وهاں there.'

male and female are found in date- کیجُور کے درختوں میں بھی نرو trees also.'

Rem. If دونوں, سب, کُچھ, کوئی, or any similar word is in apposition to the subjects, the verb of course agrees with it as its proper subject: as زن و فرزند کوئی ساتھ نہ جائیگا wife and children, no one will accompany (him).'

- 292. But if the connected subjects denote things or ideas (or partly living beings and partly things), the following cases arise:
- 1) If the subjects are all singular and of the same gender, the predicate agrees with them in gender, and may be put in the singular or plural, but the singular is preferred: as

from it spring cowardliness, mean- اُس سے بُز دِلِي اَور کم هِمَّتِي اَور سے غیرتی وَغَیرہ پَیدا هوتِي spiritedness, and spiritlessness,' etc.

هي or هوتي هيس خود غرضي اور طمع غالِب 'selfishness and covetousness dominate.' هوتِي هَي dominate.' رُغّب أور وقار جاتا رهّتا هَي

The predicate must however be put in the plural if one or more of the subjects is in the plural: as—

(his) senses were not in proper order.

2) If the subjects are of different genders, the predicate (verb, participle, adjective) usually agrees with the last in gender and number, but it may agree with the masculine even when it is not the nearest subject: e.g.

tranquillity and ease were visible on 'خاروں طرف امّن آور آسُودگی 'all sides.' ''displeasure and vexation possess him.'

¹ These rules, as also many others laid down in these pages, will be found to differ materially from those of Forbes and other grammarians, who base their rules on the language of the Bōg o bahār as 1 other such antiquated works alone, quite ignoring the literature of the present period; as though Urdū had in no way changed or improved since the time of Dr. Gilchrist. Of this we shall have more to say elsewhere. We may here content ourselves with subjoining, in corroboration of what is stated above, the opinion of two distinguished scholars, the one an inhabitant of Dehlī, the other of Lakhnau:

اگر معْطُوْف علَي مُدْكِّر هو اَور مغطُوف مُؤَّتْث تو فِعْل مبن علامت مُؤَنِّث كِي لاجِق كرينگ _ اور اگر معْطُوف علَي مُؤَنِّث اَور معْطُوف مُذَكِّر مُعْطُوف مُذَكِّر كي لاجِق كرينگ (M. Imām Bakhsh, Urdā Gram. p. 118.)

جہاں ایک فعّل کے کئی فاعِل بعْنے مُذکّر بعْنے مُوَّنَث هوں فِعْل کے مئدیّر بعْنے مُوَّنَث هوں فِعْل کے مُدکّر اور مُوَّنَث ی میں مُتکبِّم مُنْخَتار هي ۔ لیکن أولیل و فصیح بیم کے مُدکّر اور مُوَّنَث یٰنے میں مُتکبِّم مُنتمل فِعْل کا اِعْتبار کِیا جائے (M. Shaikh 'Abdullāh, Arabic Prof., Cawnpore Zha' School.)

houses for travellers and lofty build- ings are found constructed here and there.'

abstinence and content are found in it 'زُهْد و قناعت أس ميں اِتَّني (هي) to this degree.'

to this degree.' هي) الم to this degree.' الم الم أور أور 'I have no knowledge as to where ' السياب كهال گيا father, servants, and property are gone.'

the clothes, plates, and books are 'کپڙي باس آور کتابيں بہُت very good.'

respecting whom he spoke in so much جِسْكِي اِنْنِي تَعْرِيف اور اِشْتَاق 'praise, and evinced such longing.'

شي الحَّرِياں اور كائتے (many sticks and thorns were collected by me),' or 'I collected a large quantity of sticks and thorns.'

Rem. The last subject, though singular by form, may be plural in idea, in which case the predicate will be put in the plural; as عمل أله المعلقة والمعلقة و

293. If the predicate consists of equip 'to become,' 'to prove to be,' or one of the verbs mentioned in § 262, and a substantive, the verb is usually regulated in number and

gender by this substantive if it immediately precedes the verb, and is defined by a genitive or an adjective: as—

this crown and robe and (these) pearls به تاج و خنّعت آور دُرّ و جواهر مراقع و خنّعت آور دُرّ و جواهر مراقع من به على منتي هو and jewels might make up the capital stock of a thousand merchants.' و منتي مَي بُونجِي أور باتس مِلاني آور (this crown and robe and (these) pearls and jewels might make up the capital stock of a thousand merchants.' و باتس مِلاني آور stories) from this side and that, and deceiving, becomes his habit.'

294. A declinable adjective which is connected as an attribute with two or more substantives of different genders usually agrees with the masculine if the substantives denote living beings; but if they denote things or ideas, it generally agrees with the nearest: as—

'such calamities and fearful places.' أيسي آفتس أور خطَّرناك مقام 'so much praise and longing.'

295. An impersonal proposition, by which the existence of an action or relation is asserted, without being referred, as predicate, to any noun for its subject, is formed 1) by the verb چاهیئے 'it is proper or necessary;' 2) by the verbs چاهیئے 'it is proper or necessary;' 2) by the verbs چاهیئے 'necessary,' etc., followed in each case by a subordinate proposition to which the assertion refers: as—

'it is necessary that he so deal with them.' حاهمت که اُن سے ایسا برتاؤ کري it is right that he act on this.'

CHAPTER VII.

THE ARTICLE; THE RELATIONS OF SUBSTANTIVES IN A SENTENCE, AND THE CASES.

- a) ON THE ABSENCE OF THE ARTICLE IN URDU.
- 296. Urdū, like Sanskrit and the modern Āryan languages, possesses no definite article: thus شر may be translated by either 'house,' or 'a house,' or 'the house,' according to the context.
- 297. Some nouns however are in their very nature definite, e.g. پُورِب 'the sun,' پُورِب 'the East,' etc., and all proper names. Others are rendered definite—
- 1) by standing in apposition to a proper name; as کراچيي 'the scaport of Karāchī;' حکيم بيڏپائي 'the scaport of Karāchī;' حکيم بيڏپائي
- 2) by standing in the relation of governing noun to a proper noun in the genitive, when this is explicatory ; 'the country of Zerbād;' زیرتاد کا دیس as زیرتاد کا دیس 'the king of Greece.'
- 3) by being connected with the demonstrative pronouns, which, in many instances, may be properly rendered by the English definite article: as وُه كِتَابِ جِسْكَا ورق پيٿا هُوا هي 'that, or the book, a leaf of which is torn.'

Rem. According to the native grammarians not only are all proper names, personal, demonstrative, and relative pronouns, definite or

determined (مغرف), but a noun which governs any of these in the genitive is also definite; thus موهن کا لڙکا signifies properly 'the child of Mohan,' and not 'a child of Mohan's.'

298. If it be desired to point out a noun as indefinite, the numeral adjective ايك 'one, a, an' (called حرف 'the indefinite particle') or the indefinite pronoun كوئي 'some one,' 'a certain one,' is employed for the purpose, with this distinction, however, that the former more commonly particularizes the substantive, implying that only one person or thing is understood, whereas the latter implies that some one out of many, or something not described, is intended: e.g.

نَّهُ ایک اَجْهِی چیزهُی 'knowledge is a good thing.' عِلْم ایک اَجْهِی چیزهُی 'a king gave a costly robe to a certain devotec.'

'a duck used to remain by the margin نیسی تالاب کے کِناری ایک بط

a duck used to remain by the margin کیسی تالاب کے کِناری ایک بط of some tank.'

299. If some indefinite portion or quantity of a thing is implied, the word نجخ is placed before the noun in the singular or plural; as نازار سے نُحج جُوزا لے آنا 'bring some chickens from the market' (see § 399).

b) THE RELATION OF SUBSTANTIVES IN A SENTENCE.

- 300. The relation in which a noun (substantive, adjective, participle, pronoun) stands to the other parts of a sentence, is denoted by its case, or by a postposition with its noun.
- 301. Nouns which stand in the same relation, stand also in the same case: e.g.

1) The appositive (tābi') and its matbū'; as هماري آقا 'by our master Sindbād,' سِنْدْباد نه 'a ser of oil;' مِنْدُ باد نه 'a yard of cloth;' ایک بِیگها زمیس 'a bīghā of land;' لاکه گهوڙي 'ten thousand horses.'

Rem. Nouns denoting measure or quantity are coordinate with the noun denoting the thing of which they form a part. Native grammarians, however, do not regard the two nouns as in apposition, but call the second of the two nouns the specification (تمين) of the first. When a noun is preceded by a numeral adjective (عدد), it is termed or numbered. It is wrong to say of such nouns that "they are put in the nominative," for the two nouns may be in any case: e.g. what can be done with two sers of ghī?'

- 2) Words which are connected by conjunctions, enumeration, and antithesis; as جاهل طلب كرتا هَي مال كو أور عاقِل the fool seeks wealth, and the wise man perfection.
- 3) The word with which a question is put, and that which conveys the answer; as إس كو كس نه مارا 'by whom was he beaten?' ('who beat him?'), (امارا) مَرَس نه 'by me;' مُرَس نه (مارا) 'whose house is this?' مودن كا 'for whom are you making (it)?' كس كه لِيئه بناته هو 'for such-and-such a gentleman.'

I. THE NOMINATIVE CASE.

- 302. The Nominative is used to denote the subject of which a verb is predicated; مَين لَّرِّكُون كو پڙهاتا هُون 'I teach boys,' or 'I am teaching the boys.'
- 303. The Nominative is also used as the predicative noun, 1) with verbs signifying to be or become, to prove, issue, turn out; as يَكُنا , هُو سَكَنا , هُو سُكَنا , هُو سَكَنا , هُو سُكَنا , هُو سُكَ

remain,' ناميريا 'to stand or last,' etc.; 3) with passive verbs of naming, calling, making, esteeming, etc. (cf. §§ 262 and 351).

304. The Nominative is often employed absolutely to avoid the use of two or more consecutive nouns in an oblique case, and the case in which these nouns would stand is then taken by a following pronoun or pronominal adjective. This construction is also commonly employed when attention is called to the subject (with which the following pronoun is put in apposition), or when a relative explanatory sentence is inserted between the nominative and the verb: e.g.

to pick holes in any one's dress, or to ' کِسی کے کیَّزی میں عَیب نِکالْنا۔ یا کِسِی کی بد اِعْتِنادی کا فِکْر كَرْنَا أُورِ عَلَىٰ هٰذَا ٱلنِّيَاسِ سب غيبت ميں داخِل هي

speak of the untrustworthiness of any one, and so forth-all is comprehended in the word Slander.'

نِگہُ بانی کے لِیڈے وہاں پیرتا تھا۔ فلرأسكي جوں كُبُوتر پر پڙي

a villager's son, who was moving ' گُنُوارکا ایک لزکا جو کھیت کِی about there to watch the field-as soon as his eye fell on the pigeon.'

کا ھی۔ تُمہاری باپ نے اُسکے ساتھ دوستي پَيدا کِي تهِي

'Malik Sādik, who is the king of the Jinn-your father had formed a friendship with him.'

کِی۔جنْکا جانْنا نُو آموزوں کو ضرُوري أور مُوجب هوشياري کا تھا۔ وُہ بھِي درج کِي

and certain matters pertaining to the ' اور بغض باتيس غربي أور فارسي Arabic and Persian, the knowing of which was essential, and a means of enlightenment to young scholarsthey also have been introduced.'

305. The Formative plural of nouns denoting periods of time, when used collectively and indefinitely, is used in place of the nominative: e.g. برّسوں گذر گئے 'years passed away.'

II. THE AGENT.

306. When the verb of a sentence is transitive, such that its perfect participle has a passive character, and the tense employed is one which is formed with this participle (the Indefinite Past, the Present Perfect, the Past Perfect, the Past Potential, and one of the forms of the Past Conditional), the structure of the sentence (owing to the nature of the participle) takes a passive form, the near or direct object (the Accusative) is made the subject of the verb, and the agent of the act is put in the Agent case: e.g.

'His Majesty asked after my condition' مہاراج نے میرا حال پُوچہا (lit. 'by the king my condition was asked').

'they gave me good advice' (lit. 'by them to me good advice was given').

'Ihad purchased articles of merchandise' میں نے تجارت کی اجناس (lit. 'articles of merchandise had been purchased by me').

307. A sentence as object (or subject) of a verb is treated as a singular masculine noun; hence—

نَسِ نِے عَہْد کیا تھا کِ پِھِر کبیبِي 'I had vowed that never again would 'I breathe the word Travel' (lit. 'that I will never again take the name of Travel, had been vowed by me').

308. But if, for any reason, the object is constructed with ζ , or in other words takes the Dative form, the

concord between it and the verb is broken, and the construction becomes impersonal, the subject, in the form of the pronoun of the third person singular masculine, being implied in the verb: c.g.

they crushed the snake's head' (lit. 'as to the snake's head, it was crushed by them').

نهم نے اُسّٰکِي درِّخواسّت کو قبُّول 'I have accepted his petition' (lit. 'as regards his petition, it has been accepted by us').

'God has made men for the purpose of carning (their livelihood),' or lit. 'with reference to men, by God, for the purpose of carning, it has been made,' i.e. the act of creating by God, in reference to men, has been with a view to (their) carning.

- 309. One or two transitive verbs, as بولنا 'to speak,' 'to forget,' the perfect participles of which are regarded as lacking a passive character, are not constructed according to the above rules; as مَيس نِه بولا (not مَيس نِه بولا) 'I spoke.'
- 310. Compound verbs, such as נון (and its contraction ניט) 'to come with, to bring,' ב בוט 'to go away with, to take away,' בל 'to eat up,' etc., the first member of which (as also the whole verb²) is transitive, and the
- 'to these the people of Lakhnau and of Southern India add the verb 'to understand,' 'to think;' whereas Debli authors rarely treat this as a neuter verb. In the Khirad Afroz this verb, as also is repeatedly treated as neuter, but socknā, like bhūlaā, is sometimes a transitive and sometimes an intransitive verb. Other verbs, which are added to the above exceptions by some European grammarians—as 'to fear' (to be afraid), 'to fail, to fall short' (of), 'E' to fight' (with), 'to be in contact' (with), 'to take' (to)—are essentially intransitive, and hence cannot possibly take the passive construction.
- ² Forbes's rule—which Messrs. Williams and Dowson repeat—is: When the last member of a compound verb is neuter, the whole verb is neuter, and when it is transitive, the whole verb is transitive. This rule, we may observe, is not based on

second member intransitive, must necessarily be treated as neuter verbs, *i.e.* constructed actively, since a passive participle cannot be formed from the latter part of the compound, which alone is conjugated: e.g. كُتَّا سب روتِّي كَهَا كَيَّا اللهِ عَلَيْهِ اللهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهِ اللهُ عَلَيْهُ اللهُ عَلَيْهِ اللهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلِي عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهُ

Rem. In two or more co-ordinate sentences with a common subject, the last of which takes the passive construction with the Agent case, and the other (or others) the active with the Nominative, or vice versal, the Agent or the Nominative (as the case may be) of the last sentence is generally not expressed: e.g.

he mounted the horse and took the 'وُد گھوڑي پر سوَار هُوا اَور جنگل road to the jungle.'

road to the jungle.'

a servant seized my hand, and began ایک خادم نے میرا هاتي. پکڙا

'. to say to me اَور (وُد) * مُجْهِہ سے کَہّنے لگا

This construction serves to show that (as we have already remarked), according to the conception of those who now speak Urdū, the Agent case is simply a modified form of the Nominative, from which it is distinguished by the sign في, and by its exclusive use with the tenses formed from the perfect participle of transitive verbs. When a Hindūstānī says, for instance, مَر وَتِي كَهُ أَنِي مُهُ , he means not 'bread was eaten by me,' as the construction implies, but 'I ate bread.'

III. THE GENITIVE.

311. The Genitive of a word denotes that another stands with it in the relation of connection, and is in this

way defined by it. The genitive serves chiefly to show the relation of the substantive so used to some other substantive (or word used substantively), so that both substantives together express one idea; it is however also connected with some adjectives.

- 312. The Genitive in Hindūstānī, it should be borne in mind, is, as regards its origin, an Adjective (§ 43), and therefore, like other Hindī adjectives terminating in \bar{a} , it inflects for gender and number so as to agree with the noun it defines.
- 313. The Genitive may either precede or follow the word by which it is governed (§ 277 et seq.).
- 314. The Genitive after substantives is used, generally, to denote dependence of any one substantive upon another: as—

'the pretence of friendship.' دوستني كا بهانا 'the road of, i.e. to the desert.' صخرا كي راد 'a ship of, i.e. laden with men.'

Hence the Genitive depends upon خاطر, واسطے, والم , etc. signifying for the sake (of), on account (of), and on other postpositions, which are nouns in the Ablative and Locative: as باپ کے لیئے 'for the sake of, or for (my) father,' واسطے 'for me,' 'on my account.' (See § 238 et seq.)

Rem. The locative of the Reciprocal Pronoun $\overline{}$ as governing noun is frequently omitted: e.g.

a natural antagonism exists between ميري تيرى دُشَمنَى ذاتِي هَي me and thee.'

'a friendship existed between a tortoise ایک کچهوي اور بچُهو کے دوستني and a scorpion.

- so that that same may be a sign ' كِ ميري تيري وُهِي پتا هووي between me and thee.'
- 315. Genitive of Relation.—The Genitive is used to denote relationship: موهن کا بيتا Mohan's son,' لترکوں کا 'the father of the children.'
- 316. Possessive Genitive.—The Genitive denotes a thing possessed by a possessor, and the possessor of a thing possessed: as گير كا مالِك 'the owner of a house,' موهن كي 'Mohan's book.'
- 317. Instead of being joined immediately to the governing substantive, a Possessive Genitive may be connected with it by means of one of the verbs مونا ,تها ,خى, etc.: e.g.
- 'this book is Mohan's.' يهد كِتاب موهن كِي هَي 'this book is Mohan's.'
 'mine was a strange predicament at that time.'
- 318. The Genitive of possession in connection with a following verb (هونا , تيا , فونا , etc.) often stands without a governing word: e.g.
 - ایک گدها جِسْکے دُم نہ تعِي 'an ass which had no tail' (lit. 'of which there was no tail').
 - the ass had no heart and ears.' گدھے کے دل اُور کان نہ تھا ' they had no child (their's was no child).'
 - أَسَكَ سَخُت چوت الَّي هَي أَن he has received (become possessed of) a severe injury.'
- the foot-traveller had not gone many) پیادہ کئی قدم نہ گیا تھا کہ ایک *steps when a horse kicked him.

Rom. In sentences like the first three of the above, it is probable that a postposition, such as ياس or ياس (vulg. يهار), is understood.

But in the last two the native grammarians, and all native scholars, will not allow that any word is understood; but maintain that the construction is that of the Persian, \leq taking the place of the preposition k; e.g. (for) (for). This is intelligible if the construction occurs in Urdū alone. But we are not sure that it does not occur in Hindī also; and if this be the case, it would seem more probable that \leq is here an independent postposition, derived (like (like)) from the Sanskrit krite.

319. Subjective Genitive.—The Subjective Genitive indicates the subject of the action expressed in the word on which it depends: as

'Mohan's running away.'

'Mohan's running away.'

when Hindbad perceived Sindbad's مِنْدُبَادِنِے جو سِنْدُباد کي محبّت

regard (for him).'

'art's producing a resemblance to طبِعت کے ساتھ صناعت کا nature.'

320. Objective Genitive.—The Objective Genitive denotes the object of the action, feeling, or notion, expressed in the word on which it depends: as

'lust of the world.' دُنْیا کی هُوَس 'the thanksgiving of, *i.c.* to God.' 'the fear of God.' 'the sorrow of others.'

'they have an affection for this thing.' أنكو إس بات كي محبّت هي 'they consider the seeing of me unlucky.'

Rem. The Objective Genitive is of common occurrence with the so-called nominal verbs, i.e. when a substantive in the accusative is added to such verbs, i.e., to complete the notion of the verb:

e.g. مَيں جو نَيل کے ماڑنے کِي کوشش کڑتا هُوں 'the effort which I am making to kill the ox;' کہ ایک پتھر کِي اِتنبي تعریف کریں 'that ho should make so much praising of (should praise so much) a stone.'

321. Partitive Genitive.—The Genitive is used with substantives and words used substantively to indicate the whole of which a part is taken: e.g.

the beginning of the story.' آغاز قِسّے کا 'the top of the mountain.' پہاڑ کی چوٹی 'a piece of diamond.' میری کا تکتّا 'a half of the field.'

Rem. But if the part taken is a definite weight, measure, or quantity, the noun denoting the whole is put in apposition: as نسى سىر دُودهـ 'three seers of milk ;' ايک گر کپڙا 'a yard of cloth;' ايک برگد باني 'a bīghā of land ;' ايک بُونُد پانِي 'a drop of water' (cf. Rem. § 301, 1).

322. With the Partitive Genitive also are construed nouns expressing the superlative. The Genitive in this case designates the whole out of which some one or something is brought conspicuously forward as its most prominent part: e.g.

'the best of all the students.' سب طالبعِلَموں کا اچھا 'the chief seat of the assembly.' کلقے کِی صدر 'the least of them.' انّمیں کا چہوتا سے چہوتا 'people of the highest rank.' عِلْم کا اعْلٰی مرّتب کے لوگ 'the highest stage of knowledge.'

Rem. If it is desired to indicate that an object is the greatest or most distinguished of its kind, the substantive is often repeated in the form of the definite genitive plural. This construction occurs chiefly in Persian and Arabic phrases: e.g. خُدائِكُان 'the lord of

lords,' i.e. 'the supreme lord;' امِيرُ ٱلْأُمُوا 'the Amīr of Amīrs, the

- 323. Explicative Genitive.—The Explicative Genitive, or the Genitive of Definition, is closely connected in signification with the Partitive Genitive. It is used to indicate—
- 2) the relation between the material and the form; as سونے 'a watch of gold' (a gold watch); کا تبہ کا صنّدُوق (a box of wood; ' فُولاد کا قَفْل 'a lock of steel.'

In this case the Genitive has quite the force of an adjective.

3) the relation between the species and the genus, and the definition or explanation of a general or universal by a special or particular: as—

مندل کی گنجُور کا درخت 'a date-tree (a tree of the date kind).' مندل کي لکڙي 'sandal wood (wood of the sandal kind).' 'the country of Zerbād.'

لام مع کا 'the word (of) ma'.'

لام نه گفر کا 'this word kufr.'

'I will not breathe the word (of) Travel.'

In the three last examples we should rather have expected a substantive in appositior.

324. Genitive of Kind.—The Genitive is also put with words which denote a number, measure, or quantity, to indicate the kind, and the thing measured or counted: as—

'a body of servants 'خان موں کا ایک گرود 'a ship-load of men.' آدمِیوں کا ایک جہاز 'a space of three days.'

325. Genitive of Quality.—The Genitive, generally with an adjective (numeral, genitive), is used to indicate a quality of, or to describe, the noun on which it is dependent: as—

نات بات 'a matter of great wonder.' بری تعجّب کی بات 'a small-headed man.' (معی 'a small-headed man.' وقد کا آذمیی 'a man of this form and stature.' (a boy of ten years.' دس برس کا لڑکا 'a field of twenty bīghās.' بیس بیگھے کا کھیت 'a field of twenty bīghās.' خار کوس کا فاصله 'a distance (intervening space) of four kos.' بائیج سیر کا وزن 'two seers of, i.e. in weight.'

326. Genitive of Value.—The Genitive is also used (generally with an adjective of quantity) to indicate the value of a thing, and its price, if some word signifying price is expressed: e.g.

what may be the value of this property?'

he sets a high value on this.' اِسْكِي بَرِّي قَدْر كُرْتَا هَي 'he purchased cloth to the value of 'اُس نے دس رُوپَي كا كَپُرًا خرِيدا ten rupees.'

'what is the price of this box?' إس صند وي كي كيا قبمت هي

Rem. With verbs signifying to buy or sell, the price of a thing is usually expressed by the Dative, or the Locative; as وُد گَيُورًا كِتُنَے كُولِيا 'for how much did (you) buy that horse?' يہ كِتَاب كِتَنے مبس بِرِّي 'how much did this book cost?' (cf. §§ 334, and 355, 7.)

327. The Genitive is also used to distinguish a thing to which something belongs as its contents, appurtenance, etc.: e.g.

'a gugglet of (i.e. containing) water.' پاني کي صُراحِي 'water of (i.e. contained in) the river.' فريا کا پاني 'provision for three days.'

328. Genitive after Adjectives.—Many adjectives are commonly construed with the genitive. They are chiefly Persian and Arabic active participles, or nouns of agency, and Arabic passive participles, signifying desirous, seeking, coveting, envying, necessitous, beloved, producing, causing, requiring or exacting, following, obeying or subject to, helping, opposing, hindering, filness, capacity, similitude, guilt, etc. Some Hindī adjectives also, and nearly all Hindī nouns of agency, are used with a genitive: e.g.

نینے اتنائے جنس کی بہتری کا دِل 'be desirous from your heart of the well-being of your fellow-creatures.' موزی کا طالب 'a seeker after subsistence.'

those men who are covetous of 'جو آدمی مال کے حارِص هیں 'wealth.'

thirsting for (cagerly desirous of) اُسٰکے خُون کا پیاسا his blood.'

'I am not hungering for wealth.' مَين مال كا بَهُوكها نهِين 'they become envious of them.'

'they (stand in) need (of) warning: وُد عِبْرت کے مُحْتاج هَیں 'in order that you may be beloved of your Lord.'

it becomes the object of men's

affection.'

'If desire require (is the demander اگر خواهش کِسي اَیسے فِعْل کِي of) any such action.'

the Holy God also becomes his 'خُداونَّد پاک بھي اُسّکا مددگار helper.'

they consider knowledge the enemy عِلْم كو أَسْكا مُخالِف جانّت هَيس thereof.'

'anything that is an obstacle to the 'جو امّر أَسْكَ حُصُولِ مَثَلَبُ كَا attainment of his object.'

he does not become guilty of con' وُد هَنْکِ عدالت کا مُجَرِم نہیں tempt of court.'

he becomes guilty (commits the 'وْد قَتْل كَا مُرْتَكِب هوتا هَي 'he orime' of murder.'

Rem. A number of adjectives are idiomatically constructed with the inflected genitive (کے). The most common of these are: برابر 'equal,' وریب 'obedient,' 'subject,' قابل 'capable, قریب 'near,' قریب 'fit,' 'worthy,' مُنْتُابِّهِ 'adhering to,' 'connected with,' مُنْتُابِّهِ 'resembling,' 'cause,' conformable,' مُوافِق 'like,' موجب 'rendering necessary,' 'cause,' etc. These adjectives being mostly used as postpositions (§ 240, 3), the same construction has apparently been preserved when they are used as regular adjectives: eg. جب وُد شہر کے قریب پہنچے وہ شہر کے قریب پہنچے رہے۔ 'when they arrived near the city;' جامع مقل کے تابع رہے۔ 'anger should be under the control (a follower) of Reason;' اور تین 'anger should be under the control (a follower) of Reason;

ْ and three-fourths (of it) is unfit to be told.'

329. A genitive may be governed by two or more connected nouns, in which case, if these denote *living beings*, and are of different genders, the genitive is usually put in the masculine plural; but if the nouns denote *things* or *ideas*, it generally agrees with the nearest noun: e.g.

ن کُوْ کے ما باپ 'Kallū's mother and father.' 'that person's wife and child (or children).'

'his capital and profit.'

the character, custom, and style of ' أس اخبار كبي كَبَفْبَت أور دَسْتُور المَارِز بِبانِ language, of that newspaper.'

Rem. The masculine is occasionally used: e.g. کر جسکے جاد و حشم کا ، a description of whose pomp and state.' This is especially the case if the nearest noun be one of those the gender of which is not settled: e.g. جان و etc. (see § 28, 8, Rem. c): as نمیاری جان و your life and property.'

330. If an Urdū genitive is governed by a Persian genitive phrase, one noun of which is masculine and the other feminine, the genitive usually takes the masculine affix: e.g.

'the bettering of his fellow-creatures.' ایّنے ابْنائے جِنْس کِی بِہْترِی 'from the style of our discourse.' هماري طرز بيان سے 'from the style of thanks for kindly notice.'

331. A genitive that is governed by a predicative substantive connected with a singular (masculine) subject in

the plural form, is invariably put in the plural, whether its governing noun admits of a plural form or not: e.g.

'you are (= thou art) an inhabitant of تُم دِهَلِي کے رهنے والے هو Dehlī.'

'you are (=thou art) the servant of تُم فَالنَّهِ صاحب کے نَوکر هو such-and-such a gentleman.'

332. If the governing noun denote a person of rank or position who is spoken of, the genitive may be put in the plural as a mark of respect: as جو بادشاه أس مُلك كي تهي 'who was the king of that country' (cf. § 288).

IV. THE DATIVE.

333. The Dative denotes in general that what is asserted by the predicate is done, or holds good for, and in reference to a certain person or thing. This is indicated by the postposition \downarrow , employed in forming the case, and which signifies originally for the sake of, on account of, in reference to: e.g.

the lion used to appear to those و کہائِی دیتا (سیجاروں کو دِکہائِی دیتا unfortunates.'

anything the hearing whereof would 'جس بات کا سُنَنا سُنَنے والے کو prove disagreeable to the hearer.'

Rem. In the older literature the place of the Dative postposition is frequently supplied by the postposition تغير , with a genitive: e.g. كُتُّة من من المناس والمناس والم

334. As the remote object in reference to which an

action takes place, the Dative has the signification of for, for the sake of, for the purpose of, in return or exchange for, and hence its use with verbs of selling and buying: e.g.

as for us, after weeping and lamenting for your life, we had settled
down, giving you up in despair (lit.
having washed our hands of you).

bring water to wash the hands.' هاتب دهونے کو پانبی لاؤ 'give (me) a house near you for me 'give (me) in' (lit. 'to alight').

ا sold my horse for two hundred '1 sold my horse for two hundred rupces.'

"what will you give this book for?" بيد كتاب كتنب كو دوگ

come to complain.'

335. The Dative is used after verbs implying motion: as

'the merchant went home (to his house).' خواجه گهر کو چلا 'he went to the bazar.'

'(take care) that no annoyance reach the lion.) کِد شیر کو رَبِّج نہ پہنتھے

336. The Dative is used idiomatically with the verb 'to meet, or come in contact with,' to convey the idea of acquiring, finding: as

this boy has got nothing.' اِس لِزَکِے کو کُچھ نہیں مِلا ' the did not find a road or way.'

337. The Dative is used after some adjectives signifying necessary, fit, agreeable, and their opposites, when they are employed as predicative nouns: e.g.

نیه مکان همکو درگار هَي 'this house is needed by (in requisition for) us.' 'I do not approve of this matter,' lit. 'this matter is not agreeable to me.'

338. The phrases چاهینے, چاهینی, مناسب هٔي, مناسب هٔي, etc. signifying it is necessary. proper, or right, govern the Dative: e.g.

a man should exert (himself) in doing 'a man should exert (himself) in doing good,' lit. 'it is necessary for a man that he,' etc.

it is necessary for him (it behoves 'أَسْكُو لَازِم هَي كَهُ ايكُ كَي بات 'him) that he mention not the words of one person to another.'

339. With the same verbs, and also with the verbs هني and برا when these imply *intention*, *necessity*, or *constraint*, the Dative is regularly employed before the gerund, the

gerundive, and the perfect participle used as a verbal noun, to denote the subject (cf. §§ 415, 426, and 439): as

we newspaper-writers should consider,' list.' for us newspaper-writers considering is necessary or right.'

'you should learn manners.' تُم کو ادب سِیکھا (=سِیکھنا) چاهِیئے

'we ought now to consider a bit.' اب همکو ذرّه فِکْر کْرْنِي چاهِیڈے 'we ought now to consider a bit.' آیسِي مُنید باتیں جلّد کہنی 'it is right (for you) to mention such beneficial matters without delay.'

'if we have to make a watch.' اگر همکو گنیزی بنانی هَی

we have to provide against all our ' هم کو 'سي زباں سے اپّني تمام ' necessities with this same language.'

the government will certainly have (be) سڑکار کو اِس میں ضرور دسّت constrained) to interfere in this matter.'

340. The Dative of the possessor, with هونا , تپا , هونا , خپا , قبل other kindred verbs, and occasionally with the verb از 'to come,' expresses the idea of possession; but the verbs هونا and ازآ, with the Dative, more commonly imply entering into and influencing: e.g.

your Honour has many occupations کُفُسُور کو شُغْل بہُنت سے هَیں (many things to occupy you).

the alarm and anxiety which we had ' أس وقت همكو جو گهبراهٿ (we suffered) at that moment.'

'and if he have not sense and under أور جو عنال و شُعُور أَسِي بَحُمُوبِي standing in due degree.'

the king derived some consolation ' بادّشاه کو کُچه تسلِّي هُوئِی (therefrom).'

'jealousy possessed the lion.' شیر کو غیرت آئیی 'jealousy possessed the lion.' نجّبکو یقیس آیا 'I derived assurance (I became certain).' باذشاه کو اُنّک حال پر رحّم آیا king.'

341. The Dative is used to express time indefinitely: as

a band of robbers came at night.' وات كو دّاكا آيا 'in the morning, when he rose.'

Rem. The Dative postposition is often omitted, but in such cases the noun always takes the inflected form, if it is capable of inflection: e.g.

in the morning, as soon as he rose, he مُرْبَعَ أَنَّهُ اللهِ عَلَى سوار هُوا 'in the morning is soon as he rose, he

'he has gone home.' وَد گَهُرگَيا هَي he has gone to cut his food.

V. THE ACCUSATIVE.

342. The Accusative, in Hindūstānī, occurs only as the objective complement of a transitive verb; as موهن هي 'Mohan is reading a book;' كِنَاب پَرْهُمُنا هُي 'Kallū is beating Buddhū.'

Rem. What is predicated of the subject as an action, may be predicated of the object as suffering, so that this takes the place of the subject,

- 343. Whether a v rb is transitive depends on its signification, and on the circumstance whether an object is at the same time conceived as immediately acted on.
- 344. Many Urdū verbs have fundamentally a distinct notion from those by which they are commonly rendered in English, and are therefore differently constructed: as مَسَ أُسَ سِهَ الْبَنِي كِتَابِ مَالْكُنَا هُوں 'I am asking him for my book' (properly, 'I am wanting my book from him'); فه صُجِه سِه سِسِب پُوچْهتا هَي 'he is asking me for the reason' (properly, 'he is asking the reason from me'); پانِي بيرو 'fill water in the pot' ('pour water into the pot till it is full,' and not 'fill the pot with water'); السَّكِي أَسُو بِهِرِي السَّكِي 'tears filled (gathered to the full) in her eyes' (not, as translators render it, 'her eyes filled with tears').
- 345 Not a few verbs have different significations, so that in one they are transitive and govern the accusative,

وَهُ اَيْنَا a 'he is scratching his hand;' هَا تَهِ كُمُّجُلَاتاً هَي 'he is scratching his hand;' هَا تَهِ كُمُّجُلَاتاً هَي 'his hand itches;' أَسَالًا نُجَهِتَ يُكَارًا 'he called me;' أُس نَه مُجَهِتَ يُكَارًا 'he called out.'

Rem. It is particularly to be observed that intransitive verbs of motion, when compounded with the conjunctive participle of certain transitive verbs, as لينا 'to take,' دينا 'to give,' ويورزا 'to leave,' acquire a transitive signification, and are constructed with the Accusative: e.g. مكان پريه 'bring him to me;' كتاب دي گبا أُوك مري باس لاه 'he left (gave) this book at my house on his way;' لَتَاب دي گبا ويورز جاؤ (leave the boy behind here.' This is especially the case when the first member of the compound is the conjunctive participle of the verb لينا (cf. § 215 and Rem.).

- 346. The Accusative (منْعُول بِرُ) has two forms in Urdū; namely, that of the *Nominative*, and that of the *Dative*. Respecting the employment of one or other of these forms the following general rules may be laid down:
- 1) If the verb is one which requires a single object (Accusative) alone, the Accusative generally takes the nominative form, so long as there is no possibility of mistaking the object for the subject: e.g.

'the goat is drinking water.' بگري پانِي پِيتي هَي 'the goat is drinking water.' مانْپ بينگ کهاتا هي 'a snake is devouring a frog.' ميرا ماجرا سُنو

'I entertained the hope of meeting 'تُمهارِي مُلاقات كِي آرَزُو رَكَهُتا تَها you.'

the executioners that instant seized 'جلادوں نے ووٹھِس اُسکا ھاتھ۔ پکڑلیا his hand.'

Such is the usual form of the Accusative when the object is inanimate, and the subject either animate or inanimate, and its invariable form when the object is the predicative noun of the verb, as in the so-called Nominal Compounds, e.g. اِصَّتِماد رَكَهُنا 'to form the desire,' اِصَّتِماد رَكَهُنا 'to place confidence.'

2) If, however, the subject and object denote animate things, the object (Λecusative) is generally (in the case of rational beings *invariably*) distinguished by the addition to it of the postposition ε, to obviate the possibility of mistake: as

the wolf quickly tore the sheep to pieces.' بیمتریسے نے تُرْت بھبر کو پھاڑ ڈالا 'if you can kill the ox in such a way.' اگر تُو اِس طرح بیل کو مارسکے 'Kallū is beating Buddhū.'

conspicuously forward, the Accusative is generally put in the Dative form. This usually takes place when the object has been previously mentioned, and occurs again in connection with a demonstrative pronoun, or other defining word or phrase, or when some particular object is specified, or when two objects are contrasted. But much scope is allowed to individual judgment in this matter: e.g.

'after this the slaves took that dish یبر اُس طبق آور لگن کو غُلام یِآجُری and platter near the cage.'

'when you come up to the snake, throw down the ornament near it.'

'the fox, having dug a hole, had concealed the mouth thereof.'

'our master will kill the tiger.'

347. Cognate Accusative.—Intransitive as well as transitive verbs may be constructed with an Accusative of a substantive derived from the same root, or from another root of corresponding signification (مَقُعُولُ مُطَالَى the absolute object). This Accusative can never take the Dative form, and it is generally used in connection with an attributive or an adjective of quantity: e.g.

المنكو برّي مار ماري '1 gave (lit. beat) him a good beating.' مَسِى نِهَ أَسْكُو برِّي مار ماري (conduct (yourself) after the manner of men' (lit. 'walk a walking like men's').

'we also have fought hundreds of fights.' هم بهِي سَيكْرُوں لرَّاياں لرَّي (we also have fought hundreds of fights.' إنَّذِي لافِ گذراف بكا

he sat like a gentleman' (lit. 'he sat the sitting of a gentleman').

348. Double Accusative.—Many verbs (chiefly causatives derived from transitive verbs) take two objective complements in the Accusative, generally either both of the person, or one of the person and the other of the thing. In such cases the personal object more commonly precedes the other, and is defined by the postposition ς , the second Accusative being put in the Nominative form: e.g.

he was teaching his class Arith- وُه اَيْنِي دفَّعه كو حِساب پڙهاتا تها metic.'

'put this dress on him.' أسے يبه كيْزا پہُناؤ

'he would have got my lord (husband) released from prison.'

'in what religion is it permitted to خُدا کے بنّدوں کو کُتّے کا جُهوٹا کِهلانا make God's servants cat a dog's leavings.'

Rem. The Nom. form of the Accusative may, under certain circum-'I showed him that bag' وُه تَهيلِي أَسْكُو دِكَهُلائِي stances, stand first: as (cf. § 271); and occasionally both Accusatives may be defined by \leq : he gave his ' اُس نے اپنے بہائی کے جِمْے کو اُسَّکی بیتی کو دِیا as brother's portion to his (the brother's) daughter; but such examples are of rare occurrence, and must not be taken as a rule: even in this instance it would be perfectly correct to say اپنے نیائی کا حِصّہ examples like the following, which are cited by Forbes's followers to show that both objects may be defined by , the case of the second noun is not the Accusative (منعول لد), but the Dative of purpose (منعول لد): I despatched the other to 'مبس یے دُوسری کو اُسکے بُلانے کو رُخصت کیا they took the prince ' بادّشاهَزادي كو باغ كي سبر كو لمَّلْه ' call him; out to stroll in the garden;' and even in such cases the recurrence of is now generally avoided by the use of one of the postpositions کو باغ کِی سَیر کے etc., with the genitive, in place of the dative: as واسَّت . لمدّے

349. Factilive Accusative.—Verbs signifying to make, appoint, call, name, and the like, and those verbs which signify an act that takes place in the mind (الفعالي المعنى المعنى

though the object (Acc.) with which it is connected be plural; the verb also (if the tense be one composed of the passive participle) being constructed impersonally (see § 338): as

to make an evil the means of good.' کسی بدِی کو نیکِی کا وسِیله کرّنا 'he has made it such a curiosity.' 'اسے آبسا خُخفه بنایا هی 'I found him very meek.' آسے آسکو بہئت غریب پایا 'I perceive you (to be) sad.

'I perceive you (to be) sad.

'it is proper that he call that person the builder of the work.'

'any one whom I heard of (as) a doctor of religion.'

'they deem this practice eleverness.'

'it is proper that he call that person the builder of the work.'

350. But both Accusatives may have the nominative form, in which case, if the second is an adjective or participle that inflects, it agrees in gender and number with the first (the object): as

'he made all the carts stationary.' أس نے سب گاڑيوں كو كھڑا كِيا

It is noteworthy that Forbes's remarks on this point, although too briefly put, are perfectly sound; and yet succe ling grammarians, who generally follow his teaching without question, have in this i stance thought proper to depart from it.—"When adjectives ending in \$\bar{a}\$ are separated from their substantives, they not unfrequently become petrified as it were by being drawn towards a verb, and thus forming with it a sort of compound, lose their capability of change," is the teaching of Professor Monier Williams (\$Hind\bar{a}\text{stan}\bar{a}\text{ Grammar}\$, p. 93),—"Adjectives are often combined with verbs; if the verb is neuter they agree with the nominative: but if active, they remain in the masculine singular," is Mr. Dowson's rule (\$Urd\bar{a}\text{ Grammar}\$, p. 141). Not only are these rules wrong as regards the conception of the adjective spoken of, and its relation to the verb and the object, but they serve clearly to show that both these grammarians have failed to perceive that it is the use of the particle \$\frac{1}{2}\$ with the object that disturbs the concord between this and the predicative adjective.

'consider his harm your (own) harm.' أَسْكَا نُقْصان الَّيْنَا نُقْصان سُمْجِهِهِ 'you have made your face black.' '.stop the cart' گاڙِي کهڙِي کر

'he kceps no one's difficulties un- وْد مَّ شَكِلَ كَسُوكِي اتَّكِي نِهِين ركهَّتا

he satisfies (makes complete) his 'وُد ایّنبی حاجت پُورِي کرّتا هَی

'do not accumulate (lit. make collected, دُسَا کی چبزس حاجت سے زیادہ or in one place) more than (is) necessary of this world's things.'

having erected (various kinds of small ' شہر کے باہر تنٹو اور قنات اور بے and large, poled and pole-less) tents outside the city.' کیڙي کرواکر

Rem. a. It will be perceived from the above examples that it is the use of the Dative form of the Accusative that disturbs the concord between the object and the predicative adjective or participle. Similarly the concord between an adjective or participle and its substantive is always broken when the substantive is in the Dative form of the Accusative, but in no other case. Of the pronominal Accusatives, both being originally Dative forms, the second (حبحة, جبے, etc.) would likewise appear to affect the concord similarly to the first (especially if it be the object of a fift kalb): e.g. مُنجهي يُرْجا جان 'consider me (the princess) arrived.' But we also find سے کڑتے کرو 'make it (but the tea) strong, although the correctness of this seems questionable.

Rem. b. Most of the so-called Nominal verbs come under the class noticed above, and hence the Accusative governed by them is commonly put in the Dative form, and the verb in the Past Tenses (if transitive) is constructed impersonally.

351. In the passive of the verbs of the last class the

direct object becomes the subject, the indirect object remaining in the Dative form of the Accusative: e.g.

if the two be compared' (lit. 'if comparison be made in reference to the two').

son be made in reference to the two').

'it is right that he be called the builder of the work' (lit. 'that builder of the work be said in reference to him').

that I be secured from punishment کہ مُجینگو تا مُدّتِ اپیل سزا سے 'that I be secured from punishment 'کہ اُجینگو تا مُدّتِ اپیل سزا سے pending the time of appeal.'

VI. THE ABLATIVE.

352. The Ablative postposition <u>designates</u>:

- 1) Departure from a place, or from beside a person; as كَلْكُمْ سِي يَسْمَاوِر تَكُ تَارِ '; starting from Dehlī ' دِهْلِي سِي حِلْكُر ' the telegraph (electric) wire is working from Calcutta to Peshāwar; ' برقي جاري هي ' he departed from my presence; آپ همسي اُنگي طرف مالتينت هُونْ ' your Honour (you) turned from us to them.' Hence it is used:
- a) With verbs (participles, verbal adjectives) that convey the idea of separation, departure, being free, removing, liberating, guarding, concealing, flight, caution, abstinence, avoidance, holding oneself aloof from a person or thing, frightening away, encountering, self-defence, forbidding, hindering, depriving, and the like; and, in general, to express the doing of something towards or in respect to another; as

'he separated (himself) from me.' وُه مُجِهَ سے جُدا هوگیا 'when we came out from the city.' 'he took the cup from my hand.' أُس نے مبرى هاتبہ سے پياله لِيا 'when he finished (ceased from) جب وُه اِس كلام سے فارِغ هوا this discourse.'

in order that he himself should be 'in order that he himself should be clear of fault.'

be pleased to save me from this punishment.'

it is not right to keep a secret 'دوسّتوں سے بہید چِهپانا دُرُست نہِیں 'it from friends.'

'nothing remains hidden from him.' أُس سے كوئي بات مختفي نہيں رهّتِي 'to veil the eyes from (connive at) أُنّكِي خطاؤں سے اِغْماض كرّنا their faults.'

'I refrained from evil-speaking.' بُرا کہنے سے اِحْتِراض کِیا 'both of us fled from there.'

it is right to abstain from this 'اِس کام سے پڑھیز کرنا مُناسِب ھي matter.'

it is proper to hold oneself aloof 'it is proper to hold oneself aloof from such a person.'

to be on one's guard against such ' أيسي چِيزوں سے خبردار هونا things.'

'I fought with him well.' مَسِ أُس سِے خُوب لَـرًا 'any one who prevents his desire 'جو کوئي اُسٰکِي خواهِش پُورِي هونے from being fulfilled.'

'he should so deal with them.' جاهِيڤ که أنسي أيسا برتاؤ كري

'I will treat you so well (will pursue such a course of conduct towards you).'

what concern have I with share عَنَى سَے كَيَا كَام هَي ' what portion?'

b) with verbs which signify revealing, knowing, informing, asking, and the like; for in these verbs is implied the idea of the removal of a covering, real or figurative: as

it is revealed by (is evident from) یہہ اُسکی بات سے ظاہِر ہوتا ھَي his words.'

'acquaint us also with the circum أِس احُوال سے هميں بھِي مُطَلِع كرو stance.'

'no one was cognizant of this matter.' إس بات سے کوئي واقِف نہ تھا 'nor had he any knowledge of the 'نہ اُنکو خُدا پرسّتي سے کُچھ خبر worship of God.'

having become acquainted with إلى باتوں سے آگاد هوكر these matters.'

ن الله نه المحتور سے کہا 'he said to (or told) me.' اُس نے مُجبہ سے کہا 'the king asked the wazīr.' 'I will explain (it) to your honour.' مُس حُضُور سے بیاں کرونگا 'I have something to say (represent) آب سے کُجہ عرض کرنا ھی to you.'

Rem. The verbs بولنا and بولنا are also connected with the dative, the latter commonly.

c). With verbs signifying, giving up in despair, abandoning, neglecting, denying, the ability to dispense with a thing, disgust, satiety, and other such verbs as imply the notion of turning away: as

'having despaired of life.' زِنْدگِي سے مایُوس هوکر 'having relinquished hope(washed his hands) اَپْنِي جاں سے هاتھ دهوکر of his life.'

'abandon (the idea of shedding) his blood.'

why are you unmindful of the 'زمانے کِي سخّتِي سے کیُوں غافِل هو wrong-doing of the world?'

they will refuse to obey (will rebel ' وي إس حُكم سے مُنكِر هو جائينگے against) this decree.'

'I was able to dispense with worldly 'دُنْیا کے مال سے مُسِی غنِي تھا 'I wealth.'

'being disgusted with it.' اُس سے گھن کھاکر

'are you so soon weary of me?' ایسِی جلّدِی مُجه سے سیر مُوئے۔ ' to be averse to worldly wealth.'

d) With verbs signifying to surpass one: as

'he surpassed all the merchants of that place.'

Re n. But the Locative is sometimes used : e.g. باپ پر بیجی سبتند 'he even surpassed his father.'

e) With verbs signifying coming in contact, meeting and uniting, or connecting: as

'I tied it to my body.' اینے بدن سے باندھ رکھا 'I tied it to my body.' ثبورا مینے سے بندھا ھُوا تھا 'the horse was tied to a peg.' وَدَ دَمَاغَ سِے تَعَلَّى رَكَبَّتَ هَيں 'they are connected with the brain.' نتجرسے الکر کہاکر 'having knocked against (come in contact with) a stone.'

'I came as far as this for the purpose of meeting him.'

'I will see (meet) him to-morrow.' کل اُس سے مُلاقات کرُونگا 'Socrates married a shrew' (lit. 'a 'غراط نے ایک زبان دراز عَورت سے long-tongued woman'). 2) The point of lime at which an act or state has commenced: c.g.

'from morn to eve.' صُنّح سے شام تک

from childhood he has had this 'چُنظَیٰن سے اُسکو بیہی شَوق هَي 'same taste.'

'discontinue (it) from this date.' آج کې تاریخے سے مُوتَّوف کرو

Similarly, when an expired portion of time is spoken of, it is used to signify for such-and-such a time: as

'he has been absent for three days.' وُه تَمَنَ دُنَ سِے غَمَر حِاضَر هَي 'he has been absent for three days.' ایک مُدّت سے مُجَّهٰکُو شَوق هَي 'for some time past I have felt an inclination.'

3) The origin and source of a thing, and the reason why a thing is done: as

he was perplexed by my action' وُه ميرِي حركت سے حَيران هُوا ('his perplexity proceeding from, or being caused by, it').

'he became much ashamed in consequence of what he sail.'

انسان کِي زنّد گِي کھانے پينے سے هَي 'Man's life lasts through eating and drinking.'

'he is pleased with us.' وُد هم سِے خُوسُ هي

the harm which springs from disorder.'

'hence it is perceived.' یہاں سے معلوم ہوتا کھی

they begin to bear ill-will towards ' اُنْسے کِینہ کَرْنِے لَکّتے هَیں them.'

'having recreated himself with music.' راگت سے محفظُوظ ہوکر

disturbed by the vicissitudes of ' زمانے کے اِنْفِلاب سے گھبراکر fortune.'

'he is weeping through fear of you.' آپ کے خَوف سے روتا هَي 'this alone is our real motive in 'اُنکِ جارِی کرّنے سے یہی همارِي issuing them.'

4) The relation between the act and the *instrument* with which, or the *means* by which, it is performed: as—

'nor would it open with any other key.' کِسي اَور کُنَّجِي سے بیِّي نہ کَهُلْتا (see with your own eyes.'

that by their means he might make ' کِد اُنکے وسِیلے سے کِشْتُکارِی کے agricultural implements.'

fill the pot with water' (whereas 'گنڙي کو پانِي سے بھرو 'fill the pot with water' (whereas گنڙي مس ياني بھرو water into the pot till it becomes full').

When the noun in the Ablative denotes a *person*, and the verb is *neuter* or *causative*, the instrument passes into the *agent*: as

'I have committed a fault' ('a fault مُنْجِبُ سِے قَتَمُور هُوا هَي has proceeded from me').

at night-time I was unable to mako رات کو مجھ سے گیجھ تڈبیر نہ ہو any arrangement.'

I am having my boy taught Arabic ' مَولُوي صَاحِب سِے اپَّني لُڙُکے کو by the Maulavi.'

Rem. In Hindī ن in connection with passive verbs also designates the agent of an act; as راون رام سے مارا گیا 'Rāvan was killed by Rām: but this construction is not common in Urdū.

- 5) It is used with verbs signifying to barter or exchange, to indicate that with which exchange is made: as النبي 'I exchanged my goods for articles pertaining to that country' (lit. 'with my goods I exchanged articles pertaining to that country').
 - 6) The mode or manner of an action: as

be pleased to observe (them) with attention ' غَور سے مُلاحظه فرَمایے (attentively).'

'he conducts himself with humility.' اِنْکسار سے پبش آتا هي 'it is produced in great abundance.'

7) The quality of a person or thing, in which case it is generally connected with an adjective: as

بدن سے ننگا 'naked of body (naked-bodied).'

with sound legs' ('sound as regards').

sharp (experienced) in business transactions.'

Rem. The Locative also may be used to indicate a quality: as جِسْم 'big in body (big-bodied);' میں بڙي 'nimble in motion, quick of movement.'

8) The distance from, or proximity to, a person, place, or thing, and priority in point of time, after words denoting distance or priority: as

نیہاں سے بہّت دُور هَي 'it is far from this place.' there was a tiger not far from there.' وهاں سے نزدیک ایک شیر تها 'it is far from (diametrically opposed to) reason.'

to pass beyond the stage (bounds) اِعْتِدال کے مرتبے سے آگے بڑھ جانا of moderation.

' before, or previous to, beginning.' شُرُوع کُرنے سے پہُلے or آگے (زمانے) سے پہُلے or آگے

Similarly دروازی سے الدرگیا he went in through the door;' دروازی سے الدرگیا he came out through the door.'

9) The difference between two persons or things that are compared with each other: as

there is a great difference between 'کہنے سے اَور کڑنے سے بڑا فرق کھی saying and doing.'

في شابهت هي 'what resemblance is there between this and that?' ('none whatever; they are quite different.') •

Hence the use of the Ablative in forming comparatives and superlatives.

Rem. The Locative may also be used to express the difference between two persons or things: e.g. هَي هَي برّا فرق هي ; and similarly, it may be used to form comparatives and superlatives.

10) The relation which subsists between the *part* and the *whole*, the *species* and the *genus*, the *family* or *race* and a *member* thereof: as

you are not of our body.' هماري گرود سے تُم نہيں هو 'this person is an Englishman (one of the English people).'

Rem. The compound postposition میں نے is also commonly employed to express the same relation: as خاندان میں سے تھی 'his mother came of the stock of the doctors of the religion of Zoroaster.' Similarly, with the Locative postposition

alone: ایک حکیم لُقّمان کِي آؤلاد میں (مَوجُود) تھا 'a sage of the family of Lökmān was present.'

11) The definition or explanation of a general or universal by a special or particular: as

'God has given him case in every 'آنگو خُدانے سب طرح کِي فراغت ' God has given him case in every بیسے سے پیسے سے پیسے سے پیسے سے پیسے سے ' in respect of what thing do they pride سے یا شجاعت سے یا دِلیری سے themselves,—strength, courage,

Rem. The Locative is often similarly used: e.g. تُم کس چیز میں کم 'in respect of what thing are you wanting—power, money?'

bravery?

12) Compunionship or connection, being equivalent to the postposition ساته with a genitive: as

'I ate bread with curry.' روائي سالن سے کھائي مَسنے 'You are come with much baggage.' تم بڑي سامان سے آئے '(that) is connected with (concerns) my destiny.'

Rem. a. سے is sometimes used in the sense of پر or بعد as اِس سال as: as اِس سال as بعد as اِس سال as بعد الله و from (upon, after) the passing of this year (when this year has passed).'

Rem. b. The Ablative postposition, like that of the Dative, is frequently not expressed, especially in idiomatic phrases: e.g. إس طرح 'in this way,' شب طرح 'from house to house,' شب طرح 'from hand to hand,' شبا ذ كانون شنا 'from hand to hand,' ها تهون ها تهود ها تهود د يكها ند كانون شنا 'from hand to hand,' ها تهون ها تهود ها تهود د كانون شنا 'neither seen with the eyes, nor heard with the ears;' and similarly after many nouns which are used as adverbial postpositions (ef. § 236 et seg.).

353. The postposition ___ is often combined with the Locative postpositions ___, which then have the force of substantives: as

he came out from the inside of the house (he came out of the house).'

'he called out from inside the house.' گھر میں سے پُکارا

انسان کي سب صفات ميں سے 'from the midst of (from among, of) و انسان کي سب صفات ميں سے all human qualities, generosity is the noblest and the best' (cf. § 350, 10, Rem.).

he fell from (fell off) the top of the house.'

Similarly باهر سے 'from the outside,' 'from without;' of from the front,' 'from before.'

VII. THE LOCATIVE.

- 354. The Locative postpositions are , and , which denote, as a rule, essentially distinct relations and ideas, and are therefore better noticed separately.
- shows, in general, that one thing is actually in the midst of another, entirely surrounded by it. Hence—
- 1) It indicates rest in a place or during a time, and motion into a place: as إلى سال ميس 'in the house;' أبي سال ميس 'in this same year;' وَدُ شَهْرُ مَبِينَ لَيْا 'he went into the city;' وي 'they (the bees) return to the hive.' This signification is then transferred to the relation subsisting between any two things, the one of which is regarded as the place in which the other is, or happens, or into which it goes or is put: as

'in the season of youth.' جوانِي کے عالم میں

'in the mean time.' إثنے میں

'in a little while.' تهوڙي دير ميں

'in an easterly direction.' مشرقی جانب میں

ْ نَكِي سِيرت مبن كَيسِي نَرْمِي هَي 'what gentleness there is in their disposition!'

'he came to (recovered) his senses.'

'mix it in water' (or, according to our idiom, 'with water').

that they will not become polluted ' کِ نجاست وغیرہ مبی آلودہ نہ ھوں (by being mixed up) in filth,' etc.

'you lavished treasure in the path of 'تُو خُداکے رسّتے میں خزانہ ِلْتَایا (for the sake of) God.'

they become entangled in (fall into) مگارِي وغَيره ميں مُبْتلا هو جاتے deccit,' etc.

(or اپنے کام میں مشغُول (مضرُوف they are occupied in (discharging) میں their duties.'

ن کے اپنے آقا کِی نیکنامِی میں بدِل 'that they labour earnestly in (behalf of) the good repute of their master.'

Rem. It is sometimes idiomatically omitted: وُد غُقِت هُوا 'he got into (a state of) anger (became angry);' أس هُوا 'he got into a rage;' إن دِنوں 'in that year;' إن دِنوں 'in these days.'

2) It is often used in the sense of the synonymous words عني and درسيال, signifying among, between, and hence occurs in connection with verbs signifying to unite, reconcile, separate, discriminate, and the like: e.g.

'the princess was not among them.' میلک أن میں نہ تھی

dissensions will surely spring up 'dissensions will surely spring up among them.'

he made peace between men and ' اُنہوں نے آڈمییوں اَور جِنّوں میں the Jinn.'

discriminate between truth and 'سي أور جيُّوتْهِ ميں إمَّتِياز كرو falsehood.'

what difference is there between ' أس مين أور شجه مين كيا فرق هي him and me?'

3) It indicates the subject or thought of conversation, that in which these move: as

he writes about (or respecting) وُهُ الْبِنَّ حَالَ مِينَ لِكُبِتًا هَي 'he minself.'

(you) should consult (some one) اِس مُقدَّ ہے میں مشورہ کڑیا about (or in) this case.'

about (or in) this case.' چاهیئے (I) thought much about this.'

Hence it is used in stating the subject of a book or chapter: as

'On the consultation of (held by) the animals.' کیوانوں کے مشوری میں 'On Morality.'

4) It is used (like the Ablative), in connection with an adjective, to indicate the quality of a person or thing: as

5) It is employed in the *comparison* of an object with several others, governing the thing with which comparison is made: as

he is the biggest of all the bees (is big compared with all the other bees).'

- it is the greatest luminary of all 'سأتوس كواكِب ميں نير اعظم هي the seven planets.'
- 6) It is used absolutely with an adjective or substantive (in the manner of the Ablative Absolute of the Latin), to express a state or circumstance: as

'as if I entered Paradise alive' (lit. گویا جیتے جی بہشت میں گیا 'being in a living state').

هوتے and the participle میں and the participle are generally understood.

- 7) It indicates the *price* or *cost* of a thing: as 'how much did this book cost?' (cf. § 326, 331).
- 8) It is used to define or explain a general or universal by a special or particular: as
- in respect of what are you lacking 'نم کس چیز میں کم هو زور میں —power or wealth, etc. ?' (ef. 352, 11, and Rem.)
- 9) It denotes the relation subsisting between the part and the whole, the species and the genus, etc.: as
- a sage of the house of Lökman was ایک حکیم لَقَمان کے خانداں present' (cf. § 349, 10, and Rem.).
- 10) It is commonly used (instead of the Ablative, § 352, e) to indicate that one thing is close by, or in contact with another, and hence it is construed with verbs signifying to adhere, attach or connect: as
- the pieces of diamond stuck to the 'گوشٹ میں ہیری کے تُکُّرِّي لگٹ flesh.'
- they will attach the sign of the فعل مبن علامت مُذكّر كِي لاحِق masculine to the verb.' کرینگے 'fasten the bucket to the string.'

Rem. The postpositions میں are sometimes interchanged: e.g. پر هي 'the book is at home' (where پر هي الكبر پر هي 'the book is at home' (where بر هي 'tie (it) to the tree; 'كتاب كنت ميں باندهو as عنی 'how much did the book cost?' But in such cases the postposition for which سي (or) stands may always take its place; nor is it at all necessary that a verb of motion should precede the noun governed by ميں (or بر). We may say لهم أكبر ميں كيا أهم أبير كو كبا إله أبير كو كبا إله أبير كو كبا إله أبير كو كبا إله بهم أبير كو كبا وي أبير ميں كيا is not used for, and therefore could not take the place of بر من بر كيا وي 'he went to his house;' but أبير ميں أبير كو كبا وي كبا وي أبير كو كبا وي كبا

356. أوپر=), over, above, upon, is used—

1) In its original local sense, to denote higher elevation: as

'the bird was sitting on a tree' چڙيا درخت پر بَبَــَيِي تَغِي 'he was mounted on a horse.' ''God is in heaven (above)' خُدا آسُمان پر هَي ''I saw a picture on the wall.' مَس نے دِيوار پرايک تَــُويرديكِهي

The same sense is further exemplified in:

he was standing by the side of tho 'وَمَ تَالَابِ كَے كِنَارِي پِرِكَهُرًا تَهَا tank' (because a person standing by a tank rises above the level of it).

'I was seated at the door.' مَيس دَرُوازي پر بَيتْهَا تَهَا 'at (the distance of) a kos or so.' أكل الله على الله خاله أنك بر غُور كِيا جائه 'if their condition be reflected on.' اِعْتِدال پر نظر ركهُنا 'to keep the eye on moderation.'

'he attends to his affairs himself' اَپْنِے کارو بار پر خُوں توجُّه کُرْتا هَي 'to stake life upon something (play for life).'

'have pity on our state.' هماري حال پر رحْم كر 'he did not act upon it.'

wonderful and strange events befell ' مُجه پر عجِیب و غریب حوادث me (passed over me).'

having become acquainted with my اَیْني ناداني پر مُطّلِع هوکر folly.'

'at the appointed time.' وفت مُعَيّن پر

2) To indicate an act or feeling directed against an object, or towards it, with a view to getting possession of it: as

they attacked the enemy (made an attack upon him).'

'they) rushed upon him.' أَسَ پِر هُجُوم كِيا 'he is augry with me.'

'the cause of displeasure with you.' أُجِه بر خَمْكِي كا باعث 'he urged the horse against him.'

they will desire to lay hands on his 'أَسْكِي كَمَائِي پِرِ قَابِضِ هُونَا چَاهَمَنگُهُ وَعَالِمُونَا جَاهَمَنگُهُ وَعَالِمُهُمُ وَعَالِمُونَا جَاهَمُنگُهُ

to be infatuated with this life of a ' إِس چِنْد روز كِي زِنْدگِي پر فريغْته few days.'

'he became enamoured of her.'

3) To indicate a *debt* that is due, and a *duty* that is incumbent *upon* one: as

'l am in debt (a debt is upon me).'

'it is incumbent on them.' أن پر فرض هَي 'it is incumbent on them.' جس چِيز كو خُدانِهِ أن پرواجِب them.'

4) To denote the distinction or superiority that one thing enjoys over another: as

'Nature precedes (is above) Art.' طبیعت صناعت پر مُقدّم هَي 'Nature precedes (is above) Art.' اِس دُنّیا کِي زِنّدگِي کو آخِرت پر they prefer the life of this world ترْجِیه دیتے هَیں

5) To indicate the position in which (the ground on which) a person or thing stands in respect of origin, custom, education, business, etc.: e.g.

'men conform to the ways of their 'آدمِی اپنے پادشاهوں کے طریقے kings.'

'man does not abide by his promise.' إنسان ابّے فول قرار پر نہیں رئتا 'man does not abide by his promise.' وسیاست کا مدار عدالت پرهَي justice.'

every individual thing reverts to هرایک چبزاپنی اصل پرجاتی که its original.'

when desire exists in (shall conform ' جب خواهش إعّتدال كِي حالت to) a state of moderation.'

6) To denote the cause of or reason for an action: as

on account of (through) that same covetousness (of mine).'

'because of this saying of mine.'

for what offence did you beat these کِس تنصیر پر اِن عربِبوں کو مارا 'poor creatures!'

(she used to be perplexed (to account) وُہ میری قَول قرار کے نِباهینے پر for my fulfilling my promise.'

7) To show the *rule* or *standard* according to which something is done: as

'after a proper manner.' مُناسب طَور پر 'according to his wonted custom.' اپنے معمّول پر 'according to the rules of philosophy.'

8) It is sometimes used as equivalent to the Persian phrases با رُجُود ,با وصّف, = in spite of, notwithstanding: as

'notwithstanding so much wisdom.' اِتَّني دانائي پر 'in spite of this carefulness of his.'

Rem. a. The postposition ساتبه 'along with' is also employed in this sense, and when so used always precedes the pronoun it governs in the genitive: e.g. سانبه اِسْکے کِ وُد آپ جبوتا اَور نائواں هو 'notwithstanding this (fact) that he himself be small and powerless.'

Rem. b. پر, like the postpositions of the other cases, is often idiomatically omitted: e g. مبس أَسَكِي نظر 'at this same time;' أَسِي وقَت 'I have fallen under its (evil) eye (it, the snake, has marked me out for its victim);' وه مبري سرهوني كنا 'he began setting upon me' (lit. 'falling on my head'). In every instance however of a postposition being understood, the noun governed by it (if capable of inflection) takes the inflected form.

Rem. c. تلکت or تلکت to, up to, as far as, is erroneously included by some grammarians among the postpositions of the Locative. It designates, properly, the limit attained by a thing, or an action, whether that limit be included or not; as ثيماور سے كلكت تك from Peshāwar to Kalkatta (Calcutta); "نيماور سے كلكت تك آنا "to such an extent, to this degree." If it be desired to indicate that both limits are actually included, the past conjunctive participle لم signifying taking, including, is put after the noun in the Ablative; as تاك عال سے لے بات تك from the branches to the leaves

inclusive.' Tak is sometimes used in the sense of λ and λ : as اور زمین وباغ حاصل کرنے کے لیئے مُدّتوں لڑی ۔ لوگوں کے حق غصب أور زمین وباغ حاصل کرنے کے لیئے مُدّتوں لڑی ۔ لوگوں کے حق غصب 'and your contending (lit. in that you contended) for long days to acquire lands and gardens, (your) violently usurping the rights of (other) people, (your) forgeries, (your) frauds—all were unto (for) this day.'

VIII. THE VOCATIVE.

357. The Vocative case indicates the object addressed: it therefore stands in no connection with other words in a sentence. Its position is usually at the beginning of the sentence.

- 358. The Vocative is often introduced by an interjection: as او لؤکے 'O boy!' but if no particular stress is laid on the address, the interjection may be omitted: e.g. یارو 'boy!' واحبو 'gentlemen!' واحبو' O friends!'
- 359. An adjective (genitive, possessive pronoun) qualifying a noun in the Vocative is also put in the Vocative: as أَنَّ خُداكَ بِنْدِي 'O my darling!' أَنَّ خُداكَ بِنْدِي 'O servant of God!'
- 360. Some nouns occur chiefly in the Vocative case: as يَعَينا 'brother!' بَيْنا 'sister!' بَيْنا 'O mother!' بيتا 'father!' وبيال 'O friend or master!' The last of these occurs in other cases also: e.g. ميال بِي بِي دونون تبي دونون تبي 'both husband and wife were (there).'

CHAPTER VIII.

ADJECTIVES.

I. THE ATTRIBUTIVE ADJECTIVE.

- 361. The ordinary rules for the construction of the Adjective have been laid down in the preceding paragraphs (274, 280—282, 291, 292, 294, 349, 350, 359). The following are of a more special character.
- 362. Two adjectives that are attributives to one substantive are commonly connected by asyndeton, after the manner of substantives and verbs: e.g. پہتے پُرانے کیّزِی 'ragged old garments;' جَہُوتِے بِرِّی لزِّکوں سے 'from small (and) big boys.'
- 363. An adjective (generally masculine) may be used without a substantive to denote things or persons: e.g.

'from the good and evil of the time.' زمانے کے بھلے بُري سے 'in the opinion of the wise.'

the condition of certain sick persons ' بغض بِيماروں كا يب، حال هوتا هي is such.'

'small and great made rejoicings' چہوائے بڑوں نے خُوشِیاں کِیں

364. a. The adjective 'full,' approximates closely to the character of a postposition. It governs a noun in the Formative, and either precedes or follows it, more commonly the latter: e.g.

to the utmost (full (حقيل آلمُقَدُور or , تا مغَدُور = بهر مقَدُور بهر or) مقَدُور بهر extent) of one's power, as far as possible.'

b. Its signification, when it comes after the substantive, is sometimes that of as fur or much as, or sufficient for (= the Persian), see § 91, 3, Rem.): e.g.

about, or as far as a kos' (whereas ' کوس بهر would always imply 'a بهر کوس full kos').

that there be not as much as a kauṛī کہ جُبولیہ اُس میں گوڙي بير نہ هو (not a particle) of falsehood in it.

أ وپي بهر كپّرًا 'cloth sufficient for a cap.'

365. a. The adjective $\[\]$ 'like' is placed after nouns (substantives, adjectives, pronouns) to denote similitude, and inflects like the genitive case-sign to agree in gender and number with the object compared: as

'a lion-like man' ('a man bold as a lion').

'a fairy-like girl.' پرِي سِي لڙکي

some black-like (or blackish) object ' كُچَه شَيَّ كَالْيَّ سِي نظر پرِّتي هَي is visible.'

Rem. An attributive adjective or a demonstrative pronoun may precede the substantive, the pronoun (see next para.) being put in the Formative: e.g.

'ilike a raging elephant;' مست هاتهي سا 'like that merchant.'

b. When it follows a pronoun, it governs it in the Formative (cf. \S 376): e.g.

'a wise man like thee.' تُجه سا آدْمِي عَنْلَمْنْد

that you restored to life a dead my کے مُردي کو زندہ کیا like me.

three darweshes afflicted like thee. ' نس درویش نُجه سے دُکھیے

c. The Genitive, inasmuch as it possesses the character of (and is by origin) an Adjective, may also be followed by L., forming with it a kind of compound adjective : c.y.

a form like a tiger's' ('a tiger-like ' شیر کِی سی صُورت

'its case is similar to that of bodily 'شكا حال بدني رياضت كا سا هَي exercise.'

'feet like goats' پاؤں بگریوں کے سے 'understanding and judgment like ours.' عنل و تميز هماري سي

d. The compound with L may also be employed adverbially and substantively: as

'alı men are not alike.' سب آدمی ایک سے نہیں ہوتے

'you also were lying like a corpse.' تُو بھی مُرَّدہ سا پڑا تھا

(something like a light (a light-like ' دُور سے ایک شُعْله سا نظر آیا appeared at a distance.'

his colour and complexion became ' أَسْكَا رَبَكَ وَ رَوْغَنَ كُجِهِ كَا كُجِهِ هوئيا اوركيانجلِي سِي ڏال دِي

something quite different, and shed something like the slough of a snake' (lit. 'a snake-slough-like').

occurs سار occurs سار the indeclinable adjective سار occasionally in the older literature: e.g. سار دُکھیے. We may here point out that instead of بُجه سار دُكِهِي , the reading of Forbes's Bay o bahar (ed. 1856, page 68) is تُجِه سار ركيے, which is absolutely meaningless. At page 203 also of the same edition we find which is very extraordinary; for it is evident that the ميرا سا دَّكهيا

speaker means to say "afflicted like me," and therefore the reading should be أحجه سا دُكِيا. Some grammarians, strange to say, receive Forbes' version as correct, and translate it "distress like mine." We need hardly point out that فكيد can never mean "distress," and that if the speaker had meant to imply "distress like mine," he would have said عبراً سا دُكية.

- 366. The adverbial affix \cup , which is added to adjectives alone (most commonly to adjectives of quantity), and indicates a great or small degree of a quality, etc., is generally confounded with the adjective of similitude, although the two words are quite distinct both as to origin and signification (§§ 48, 49, and 50, Rem.). As both are similarly constructed, it may sometimes happen that the context alone must be looked to, to determine whether similitude or degree is implied; but this can only occur when the adjective to which له is joined is one of quality: e.g. كالا يما may signify black-like, or blackish, or very black, though the last is the more common signification. When however it is connected with an adjective of quantity, is almost invariably the adverb of degree : e.g. بہنت سے گھوڙي 'a great نره سِي 'for a trifling fault;' تهوڙي سے فَصُور پر 'for a trifling fault; 'a trivial matter.'
- 367. a. The rules for the formation of comparatives and superlatives, and the various methods of intensifying an adjective, have been laid down in §§ 47 and 48.
- 6. Persian and Arabic comparatives and superlatives are of common occurrence: e.g. 'the better (or best) course;' الأنيل توجّه سے 'with the least attention.' The Arabic superlative, whether constructed with a masculine or feminine noun in Urdū, always takes the musculine form.

II. NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

- 368. The following rules relate to the Cardinal numbers alone; there being nothing special in the construction of the Ordinals beyond what has been already noticed (§ 55 et seq.).
- 369. The cardinal numbers usually precede the noun with which they are connected, and this may be put in the singular or the plural, according to the following rules:
- 1) If the noun denote money, measure or quantity, time, distance, direction, manner, or if it be one which is used as a collective numeral (like the English brace, pair, head, etc.), as الله 'a pair,' مال 'a rein,' وقطار 'a string or file,' it is commonly put in the singular; but the verb forming its predicate is generally plural: e.g.

نیک هزار اشرفی نهیانی ' one thousand ashrafī (gold-mohurs).' ایک هزار اشرفی نهیلیی ' a bag of four thousand rupees.' نام ' a piece (of cloth) of twenty yards.' عبار من ' a field of ten bīghās.' نام ' after two or three gharīs.' نام بین ' in the course of two or three days.' نام نام نام ' in three weeks.' نین حقت مین ' for the space of three months.' نین مهینت تلک ' for the age of) sixty years.' نین طرف سے ' from three sides.' نین طرف سے ' from two directions.' نوطن نام کی ' by two means.' خوار قسم کی ' of teur kinds.'

نیْدر ہ سَی زَنْجِیرِ فِیل 'fifteen hundred chain of elephants' (compare the English "fifteen hundred head of cattle").

'nine hundred string (file) of burden-bearing camels.'

'ten rein (i.e. ten) 'Irāk horses.'

Rem. The plural also is occasionally used when the noun denotes money: as چالیس اشرفیاں 'forty ashrafīs;' and in this case, when the noun is put in the singular, the verb also is sometimes singular, the verb also is sometimes singular, 'there were (lit. was) two hundred and fifty ashrafī.'

2) In all other cases the plural is more commonly employed, though the noun may be put in the singular: the predicate however is usually put in the plural: as

ن الکنه گڼوڙي 'a lakh of horses.'

'there are two things (lit. thing) in man.'

'with one hundred and one men.'

'two or three (a few) words.'

'four or five trays.'

'quest of four things.'

'quest of four things.'

'he wrote two lines.'

'two drops of tears fell.'

'there are thirty-nine bullets.'

370. The higher cardinal numbers, when used as collective substantives, are put in the Formative plural, and the noun denoting the things thus vaguely enumerated

follows in the plural or the singular, according to the preceding rules: e.g.

سَيكُرُوں لراياں 'hundreds of fights' (properly, 'fights in hundreds').

'thousands of elephants.' هزارون هاتهي

curiosities (to the value) of lakhs فَا تَعْوَى رُوپَي كَ تُحْفَعُ of rupees.'

'lakhs (of men) will die in con- لاکھوں (آدمِي) اُسْکے ظُلَم سے مرینگے sequence of his tyranny.'

371. Similarly when the cardinal numbers (generally) are connected with some definite or specific object, they are used as collective substantives, and put in the Formative plural, to indicate that all or the whole of the objects enumerated are included; while the noun denoting these objects may be put in the singular (cf. § 369, 2): e.g.

'the whole of the forty monkeys' چالبسوں بندر (before mentioned).

'by all of the four mendicants.' چاروں فقیروں (or فقیر) نے

'between both of the two kings.' دونوں باڈشاھوں (or باڈشاھ) میں

'into both my (two) eyes.' مبری دونوں آنگیوں میں

both of the two states are (states) دونوں حالتیں خرابي کِي هَيں of evil.'

"of all the seven planets.' ساتوں کواکِب میں

the whole of the eight watches' (into which a day of twenty-four hours is divided, and hence) 'the whole twenty-four hours.'

from all the four quarters' (the cardinal points), from all sides.'

eardinal points), from all sides.

the prayers of all the five (appointed) times.

Rem. These numeral forms appear to perplex the grammarians in no small degree. Thus we are told by one of our most recent instructors that "in the oblique cases plural, when the numerals are specific, the numeral or the noun, or both the numeral and the noun, are put in چالِیس فروازوں سے (or) چالیسوں فروازی سے (c.g.) the oblique form: = 'through the forty doors.' But when the sense is not specific, the noun is put in the nominative plural : (e.g.) تیں دِن کے عرصے مب means 'for the space of three days;' but تِبنوں دِن کے عرصے میں or تیس دِنوں کے عرصے میں means 'for the space of the three days.'" These rules, we may observe, are essentially wrong, and betray a total misconception of the nature of the numeral in the cases compared. the expressions تین بن کے عرصے and چالیس دروازوں سے signification of which differs in no respect from that of چالیس دروازي and نیس درس کے عرصے), the numeral is used as an adjective; whereas in the expressions سے دروازیں or) دروازیں or) جالیسوں دروازی or) the numeral is used as a collective substantive, signifying 'including the whole total of forty,' or 'in their whole total of forty,' etc.: thus means 'through forty,' or 'the forty صحالیس دروازوں (or دروازی) سے حالیسوں دروازی (or دروازوں) سے doors,' according to the context; but signifies 'through the doors in their whole total of forty,' or 'through all the forty doors.'

CHAPTER IX.

PRONOUNS.

I. THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

372. The personal pronouns are not usually expressed when they are the subjects of *personal* verbs, and are even often understood in other instances. But they must be expressed where perspicuity, contrast, or emphasis is required. They generally precede the verb; but they sometimes follow (commonly in the Imperative), especially in poetry: *e.g.*

'how shall I leave it and go?' أسے چپوڙكر كيُوٽكر جاڙس 'should I do (it)?'

'I used to call to mind the saying of the wise.' عجب نادان هَين وُه 'rare fools are they.'

373. Two or more pronouns forming the subjects of one predicate are arranged in the order of the persons (§ 290). The same order is commonly (though not invariably) observed when the pronouns are in an inflected case: e.g.

that that same may be a sign کے میری تیری وُهِي پتا هووي between me and thee.'

the causing (of people) to laugh at me and you.'

But أس مسين أور صُبجهه مسين كيا 'what difference is there between فرق هَي الله فرق هَي الله فرق هُي الله فرق الله فرق

374. The Genitives of the pronouns are properly possessive adjectives in the Nominative (§ 154), and are inflected accordingly. They are however frequently used as objective genitives: as

'in quest of you.' تُمهارِي تلاش ميں 'in quest of him or it.'

they consider the sight of me unlucky.'

he groped with his hands to eateh 'هماري پكرنے كو هاتھ چلائے (for the catching of) us.'

375. a. The place of the Accusative of the personal pronouns (including the Demonstrative, when it is used for the pronoun of the *third* person) is supplied by the Dative, either of the two forms of which may be used as a Dative or an Accusative; but the form which takes the postposition \leq is that more commonly used for the Accusative: e.g.

'our master Sindbād has called thee.' هماري آقا سِنْدْباد نِي تُجهْكُو بُلايا هَي 'she moved the cloth from (her) face مثبه سے سرّکاکر مُجهْبُکو دیکھا and looked at me.'

'he went there with you' ('brought you there').

they ate them up. أَنْكُو كَهَا كُلُّتِ

this fakīr became paralyzed on 'فتِيرِ أُسْكُو دِيكَيْكُرِ سُن هُوَّا 'seeing her.'

'having recognized thee.' تُجهِے پہنچانکر

'in order that they might see me.'

'decming me dead.' مُجهے مُوا هُوا جانگر

how shall I leave it and go?' (lit. 'go, having left it').

'on the instant of seeing them.' أنهيس ديكيَّت هِي

b. If the Dative and the Accusative of a pronoun occur in the same sentence, the Accusative takes the postposition \geq , and the Dative the second form: as

c. Similarly the second form of the Dative is used for the Dative or Accusative of the pronoun if, in the same sentence, the direct or indirect object of the verb is a noun constructed with $\leq c.g.$

376: a. When a personal pronoun in any case except the Nominative and Vocative is connected with an attributive adjective, it precedes the same in the Formative, and the case-sign is added to the adjective: e.g.

'the true story of ruined me.' مُجِهِ خانه خراب کِي حقِيقت 'to lowly me.' مُجِنِ عاجِز کو

b. Excepting the Agent case and the Genitive, as well as the Nominative, the same construction obtains when the emphatic particle عبي (plural هبي or العبي) is added to the pronouns, that of the third person included: e.g.

But مَيں نے هِي یہ. کام نہبں کِیا I alone did not do this.'

'my course is the correct one.' میرا هِي طریقہ تَّجِبکُ هَي

'this property is yours.'

- c. The Adjective of Similitude L. (as has been shown in § 365) always follows the personal pronouns, and governs them in the Formative. It rarely occurs however in connection with the pronoun of the third person. In the pronominal adjectives المياً, أيساً, the pronoun is demonstrative, not personal, the signification being not like him, or it, but like this, or that, such (cf. § 156 and Rem.).
- d. The postposition باس, which governs both the Formative and the Genitive of substantives (§ 239), may likewise govern the Formative or the Genitive of pronouns: "g. أس باس 'near me,' أس باس 'near him.' In both cases however the Genitive is the more common construction.

Rem. The plural pronoun is often used for the singular persons of rank or position when addressing inferiors; and the plural is commonly employed in place of the singular if. These forms being thus used in the singular, their place as plurals is often supplied by the expressions هم لوك 'we people,' we; 'you people,' you.' The use of 'thou,' though common among the vulgar, is restricted by the educated to the purpose of indicating contempt, affection (chiefly in addressing children, or old and trusty servants), or reverence (whence its employment in addresses to the Deity). The educated, when conversing with equals, generally use the singular pronouns when conversing with equals, generally use the singular pronouns of it is the two persons are intimate friends. The respectful forms for the third person singular in any of the inflected cases except the Agent, are it is a singular in any of the inflected cases of

the Agent the form is أنهوں نے كہا (e.g. أنهوں نے كہا 'he said'), and not أنهوں نے كہا , this being now the ordinary form of the singular Agent (ef. §§ 140, 141).

II. THE DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

377. The Demonstrative pronouns are local adjectives; but, by omitting the object defined, they may be used as nouns: as يبه سُنَّكُر 'what are these?' يبه سُنَّكُر 'hearing this.'

378. There is no personal pronoun of the third person in Hindūstānī: its place is generally supplied by the remote demonstrative if that, he, she, it. But if it be desired to distinguish between a near and a remote object, the pronoun if this is used to indicate the nearer object. When the demonstratives are used as personal pronouns, the case-signs are added immediately to them; but when they are employed adjectively, defining a noun in an inflected case, they are put in the Formative, but the postposition of the case is added to the substantive (cf. § 141): e.g.

'what does this man say?'

'what does this man say?'

'that person was seated near me.'

'that person was seated near me.'

'refrain from this business.'

'near that cave.'

'he will see me.'

'there is no believing him (this man near).'

'bring him to me.'

Rom. a. The forms جب and s are both singular and plural in Urdū (§ 141, Rom. c.): e.g. بين هُمَين 'they say.'¹

Rem. b. The rules laid down in §§ 373-376, apply also to the pronoun of the third person.

379. The Demonstrative بيبي 'this same, this very' (= بيب + the emphatic particle بيب -, or, in the plural, بيب), refers emphatically to an object close at hand, or just spoken of, or about to be mentioned; رُهِي 'that same, that very,' to a more remote, or a previously mentioned object: e.g.

this same is written in our destiny دماري طالع ميں يبِي لِکها کمي کِد (namely) that we shall break (gather) sticks every day.'

in this same (afore-mentioned) اِسِي طرح اشْرفياں کے لالیج سے manner, through greed of ashrafis.

every year in these same days.' هرسال اِنغِس دِنوں مبس ' every year in these same days.' وُهِي عَورت كَهْنِي لَكِي لَي began to say.'

the servants of the same (aforementioned) gentleman.'

along with all these same (aforeinjury) اننجس سب تاجِروں کے ساتھ
mentioned) merchants.'

'this' or 'these;' so 'that' or 'those.' The use of these forms in the plural is termed "ungrammatical" by a recent writer on Urdū grammar. The same thoughtless remark was made some years ago in one of the notes to an English translation of a well-known Urdū work, and happening to fall under the eye of a native scholar in India, called forth the following: "We shall ere long, I suppose, have English gentlemen coming out to India to teach us how to speak and write our own tongue correctly and idiomatically." It may perhaps induce these gentlemen to change their opinion on this subject if they learn that the original plural form of also was (as it is now in Marathī and Sindhī), and that this ultimately gave place to 4, eq. (as it is giving place to 2, .

380. a. In the Accusative, the Demonstratives, when used as adjectives or substantives defining a thing, may take the Nominative forms (1), 1), if there be no stress laid on them, or the object defined by them has not been previously mentioned; but these forms can never occur when the Demonstratives are used as personal pronouns: e.g.

"where shall I take this bundle? بيه گَتَّهْرِي كَهَاں پَهُمْتَحَاوَّل بُهُمُتَحَاوَّل 'for how many days shall I subsist on that money?'

'having heard this.' یہ سُنگر 'having heard this.' مَسَى وُد تُجهِمِے دُوں 'i will give that (not it) to thee.'

b. But if the Demonstratives refer to an animate object, or to a thing which it is desired to bring conspicuously forward (cf. § 346, 2, 3), they take the inflected form (§ 378), and the postposition \geq is added to the noun defined by them: e.g.

' why are you beating this boy?' اِس الزَّکے کو کیُوں مارْتے ہو ' take this dog away.' اِس کُنّے کو لے جاؤ ' I tore that book.'

o. The use of one or other of the two forms of the Dative-Accusative (viz. سے اسکو or انہیں اسکو or انہیں (اسکو or اسکو) of the personal pronouns has been explained in § 375.

Rem. If the Demonstrative defines a noun followed by the adjective of similitude أس سَوداگر سا it takes the inflected form (§ 365): as أس سَوداگر سا like that merchant.'

381. The Demonstratives are occasionally used in the sense of the pronominal adjectives رَيسا ,اَيسا ,derived from them. In such cases an explanatory or descriptive

sentence introduced by the explicatory particle ξ 'that,' generally follows: as

such was the state of brilliance that بوشند کا بیه عالم تها که شب قدر نه تهی در نه در

III. THE RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

382. There are in Urdū two sorts of relative sentences; namely 1) such as are introduced by the Relative pronoun who, which, what,' etc.; and 2) such as are annexed to an immediately preceding definite or indefinite noun without the aid of a Relative pronoun. A sentence of the former kind is called ** *a conjunctive sentence*; of the latter kind ** *a conjunctive or qualificative sentence* (see § 276, Rem.).

1) THE CONJUNCTIVE SENTENCE.

- is used both substantively and adjectively: it may moreover be definite or indefinite; as if he who came, or 'whoever came.'
- 384. a. When the Relative is used as an indefinite substantive, its clause is generally followed by one introduced by the correlative or determinative pronoun $_{\infty}$ or $_{\infty}$ (more commonly the latter, which is often more emphatic than $_{\infty}$), which takes up the Relative, the two pronouns agreeing in gender and number, but each standing in the case

determined by its relation to its own clause. The correlative however is often omitted: e.g.

happen what may' (lit. 'whatever' جو هو سو هو shall happen, that (or it) shall happen.'

do that wherein your pleasure 'do that wherein your pleasure consists' ('do whateveryou please').

those who were smart and active 'جوچُست و چالات تھے وُہ جنّدی quickly jumped into the boats and went on board (the ship).'

whoever came went away laden (evith treasure).'

Rem. Compare with the Urdū so or وو عو , the Sanskrit यद yad— तद tad, and the Latin qui—is, or īdem.

b. The Relative (and, as the case may be, the correlative) may be repeated for the sake of emphasis (تاكيد, see Rem. § 276): e.g.

whatever articles I considered ne
و جو جو جيزيں مُناسِب اور

cessary and advantageous (those)

I purchased.'

c. The indefinite pronouns جو کُج، 'whoever,' جو کُج، 'whatsoever,' are also constructed like the Relative; and the place of the following determinative pronoun may be supplied by one of the pronominal adjectives وَيسا, اَيسا, اَيسا

to whomsoever (fod has given a 'جس کِسِي کو الله نے بہّت سِي 'great many good things, it behoves مَن اُسْكُو لائِفُ him to render thanks.'

whatever they suck from the petals ' اُن بهُولُوں کي پتدوں سے جو گُچه of those flowers is reproduced in the form of a viscous and sweet substance (called honey).'

whatever (all that) he had described 'جو کُجِنِ اُسْکا فائدہ بیاں کیا تھا as its beneficial effects, exactly such I found (it to be)'

385. But if the relative clause is used adjectively (as the $d\omega$) to describe or define a preceding substantive, the construction is similar to that of English: the Relative agrees with its antecedent in gender, number, and person, the concord in gender (since the pronoun has no distinct forms for mase, and fem.) being indicated by the predicate of the relative clause. The case of the Relative is determined by its relation to its own clause: e.g.

'a sage, who was skilled in decipher ایک حکمہ حو یُرانے خط کے پڑھنے ing old characters (or writings).'

this is an outrage for which no یہد ایک اندھبر ھی جسّکا گیجہ پر ایک ندھبر سے punishment is inflicted.'

this mansion is Sindbad's, who پہدولت خاد سنڈباد کا ھی جسنے has made the voyage of all the seas in the world.'

there is (they have) a king among أنمس ايك پادشاد هوتا هَي جِسْكو them, whom they call Ya'sūb.'

386. a. The antecedent, especially if it be an indefinite substantive, is often attracted (in the same case as the Relative adjective) into the relative clause, and the construction is then the same as that explained in § 384: e.g.

(the king who (= whatever king) جو پاڏشاد آن پر عمل نہ کري أسكيم سلطنت هميشه ستزلزل

none of the people present could' جو لوگ حاضر تھے اُن میں سے كوئي أس خطكونه يڙهه سكتا تها 'I embarked in a good ship along 'جن تاجروں کی دِیانت اَور امانت یر اِعْتِماد تھا اُنکیے ساتھ ایک اجنے جہاز پر سوار ہُوا

'no benefit—naught but harm (lit. no گیا کھی اُس سے بجُز ضرکے آور گھنہ فائدہ حاصل نہ ہوگا[۔]

'listen to no complaint against the 'جس نَوكر كو مُقرّب بنائِيت أُسْكِي نسبت شکایت ناسینے

when (lit. at which time) it be- جس وقنت معلوم هو كه فلال شخص حُپغُل خور هَى أُسِي وَقَّت أُسْكِيهِ دفعیے کی تذبیر کری

to remove him (from his place).'

does not act upon them, his dominion will ever remain in a tottering condition.'

read that character.'

with some (those) merchants in whose honesty and integrity I had confidence.'

benefit save harm) will be received from the person in whose bosom rancour has established itself.'

servant whom you make a favourite (or confidant).

comes known (to the king) that such and such a person is a talebearer, let him immediately (lit. at that very time) take steps

b. If the Relative be connected with a substantive denoting place, direction, etc., one of the corresponding pronominal adverbs (§ 224) will take the place of the determinative pronoun: as

he went in the same direction from ' جس طرّف سے آیا اُدھر ہی کو چلا which he came.'

'a water-pot filled with gold mohurs جس درخت کے نِیچے تُوکبڙا هَي is buried here under the tree فيوں سے بہرا فيوں سے بہرا

387. If emphasis is laid on the Demonstrative clause, it generally precedes the Relative: as

and then he kills the bee that brings ' پهرأس مڏبي کو مار ڏاٽتا جو بدبو
the offensive smell with it.'

نب فِكْرِي مِس وُهِي لوگ زنّدگي 'those people alone pass their lives 'in unconcern who are foolish and thoughtless.'

and I explained in their presence أوروْد تدبير جس سے مَس يہاں تک the expedient by (me as of) which I got there (lit. here).

Rem. In sentences like the above the native grammarians regard the position of the relative clause as in no wise different from what it is in the sentences noticed under § 386. For example: analyzing the two sentences يقاب جو تُم نے لوء , etc., and باللہ عنوں باللہ بال

388. a. The Relative may be used both as subject and object in one and the same sentence, which then becomes doubly correlative. This construction is always employed in such sentences as in English contain both an indefinite Relative and an indefinite Pronoun. For

example, "whatever came into the mind of any one," would in Urdū be expressed thus: "whatsoever came into the mind of whomsoever." In such cases the Correlative pronouns are, one or both, frequently omitted in Urdū: e.g.

whatsoever fell into any one's الكت كيا ألكت كيا الكت كيا الكت كيا الكت كيا whomsoever's hands, he carried on!

'whatsoever form He considered بحسکے واشطے جو صُورت مناسِب for any one soever, He best wed بنا بنا اللہ مناسِب تبا 'whatsoever was proper for any a soever has been bestowed.'

b. A pronominal adverb derived from the Relative pronoun may even take the place of one of the Relatives: σg .

اور جہاں سے جو کُچنہ پاتے هُس لے 'and whatsoever they find any where they bring thence' (lit. 'and whencesoever whatsoever they find they bring').

'as any one does so will he receive.' حو جَيسا كريمًا وَيسا پاويمًا

Rem. a. This construction, it may be observed, is derived from the Sanskrit: e.g. yad rochate yasmai, 'whatsoever is pleasing to whomsoever,' or 'whatever pleases any one;' and, as might be expected, it is found in the Persian also: e.g. بهرک هرچ سزاوار بُود بخشد ند 'whatsoever was suitable to any one has been bestowed.'

The Relative is never employed in connection with the Indefinite pronouns, except to form the compound indefinite pronouns جو کوئي (Formative جسکي), and جو کُچه If in the first of the above examples we were to substitute کسي کے would no longer be a Relative pronoun, but a conjunction, and the meaning of

the sentence would be "if it fell into the hands of any one, etc." The Relative pronoun however partakes considerably of the character of the Indefinite pronoun, and frequently implies a condition also, thus taking the signification of the conjunction , , 'if;' as جس صُورت ميں أُود لوگت خائِن هُوئيہ - اَور بـادْشاه كو اُنك ناد جان سے جائينگ 'if in any case (ابلا، in the case in which) they turned traitors, and the king had confidence in their statements, then many innocent people would (lit. will) lose their lives.'

389. The relative adjectives and adverbs also are used correlatively, in the manner of the relative pronoun: ϵg .

'as he (or I) did, so he (or I) received.'

yhere the rose (is) the عار خار (also is)

the thorn'

take as much as is necessary (as you want).'

"while there is life there is hope." جب تلک سائس تب تلک آس

2) THE QUALITICATIVE SENTENCE.

annexed to an immediately preceding definite or indefinite noun which it qualifies or describes. It is always introduced by the particle ξ 'that,' which is simply an explicatory particle (called كاف بيانية the kāf of the descriptive sentence, when preceded by a substantive, and كاف بيانية, the kāf of the conjunctive clause, when it is preceded by a relative pronoun), and hence may also stand before a sentence beginning with the relative pronoun when such sentence

is descriptive of that which precedes it. The qualificative clause following \mathcal{L} contains a pronoun (either expressed or understood, or implied in the verb) which refers to the qualified noun, and connects it with the qualificative clause. This pronoun (the case of which is altogether independent of that of the antecedent) supplies the syntactical place of our relative pronoun. The particle \mathcal{L} it should be observed is sometimes omitted and not generally translated: e.g.

the wazīr, who (lit. he) was a wise وزير كِه (وُد .se) مَرْدِ دَانَا تَهَا man.'

and a great many met., who (ld.) أَسْكِي (وي.) 'and a great many met., who (ld.) 'پُشت پر تبھے ' they) were on its back.'

to the end that I might meet with کہ کِسی آیسے شخص سے مُلاقات some such person with whom (lit. that with him) I might return to my native land.

'that slave who had been fostered.' وُد خُلام کِه جِس نِه پرُورِش پائِي تَغِي 'that slave who had been fostered.' وَتُنا مال کِه جِسْکا حِساب نہِس no calculation.'

Rem. The construction with \leq is borrowed from the Persian, and the explanation here given of its use is taken from the Kawā'idĕ Urdū Part IV. Ki is neither itself a relative pronoun, nor does it "at the beginning of a sentence with a personal pronoun coming in sub-

sequently represent the Relative;" but it is in all cases a simple particle heading a descriptive or defining clause, which clause, as we have observed above, contains a pronoun that supplies the syntactical place of our relative pronoun. We subjoin the analysis of a sentence by a native grammarian in corroboration of this view. وَدُ كِتَابِ كِدُ مُعِي , "the analysis is this—عَنْ, ismë ishāra; بررتجي هَي , mushārun ilaih; ishāra aur mushārun ilaih milkar mauṣūf hū'ā; كِي , kāf bayān kā; , بير رتجي هي , jārr, aur yēh donon milkar muta'alliķ hū'e fe'l, ya'ne مُعِي هِي he, jiskā fā'il ṣamīr hai jo phirtī hai وَكُنُو لِهُ لِهُ مُعْ لِهُ اللهُ عَلَى اللهُ اللهُ

IV. THE INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

" who are you? ' ثم كون هو who are you? ' ثم كون هو ' who said such a thing? ' who said such a thing? ' what merchant's packages are those? ' what is your name? ' تمناراً نام كيا هي ' what does he say?' كيا كهتا هي ' what fault have I committed?'

392. The pronouns may be repeated for emphasis (تاكيد, see § 276, Rem.), with a distributive force, or to imply a great number or variety: e.g.

in what various ways?' کس کِدم طرح 'in what various ways?' تُجه مبی برّات عَیب هَس کس 'you have many faults, which particular ones shall I enumerate?'

'what several works did they all do?' أن سمهوں نے كيا كبا كام كِبلْے

393. When the question refers to one of two or more, the particle لربي is generally added to the interrogative: as

out of two or more). 'in which particular book?' (out of two or more).

394. The Interrogative like the Relative (§ 388), may be used as both subject and object in the same sentence: e.g.

ا دیکٹوں کون کِس مرتبے میں هي 'let me see in what rank each of you stands' (let. 'who stands in what rank?')

is used only with the signification of why? as کاھے کو اُنکے پاس جانے signification of why? as کاھے کو اُنکے پاس جانے why do they go near them?' But at the present period the phrase کس واسطے or لیئے or لیئے or لیئے نہیں واسطے or لیئے 'for what purpose?' 'why?' is more common: e.g. پہاں کِس لِبئے بَیائے ہو۔ 'why are you sitting here?' تم سب اِس ویرانے میں کیوں آئے ھو 'hyp have you all come to this desolate place?'

or to imply the answer 'no,' 'none whatever:' as

what shall I do with Paradise (what is Paradise to me) without thee, darling?

"what shame is there in eating کیاہے میں شرّم کیا تھی 'there is no shame,' etc.)

Rem. a. Compare also the use of اکما فیا دیو in the following: آدمی کبا دیو 'a man! nay, he was a demon' (or 'he was no man, he was a demon'; مماری اخلاقی میاحثوں پر عمر کا تو کما ذکر کی خود هماری هم وطن دمری اخلاقی میاحثوں پر عمر کا تو کما ذکر کی خود هماری هم وطن آرمائی می نوجه میمی کرنے آرمائی کو بیر 'to what purpose should I again test that which (or him who) has been tested!'

Rem. b. The interrogative adverbs بكيان 'when?' كيان 'when?' وفد., are also often used to imply the answer 'no,' 'never:' e.g. كو مُناهد ولات كي عالمي طبيعت اهل دُولت كي 'when does a noble-minded man flatter the rich?' i.e. 'a noble-minded man never flatters,' etc.

- 2) Indignation, or rebuke; as

 'what are you doing?' ('don't do that!')
- 3) Surprise or wonder: as
 (what a very good man he is!'
- b. It may also be used like the English 'how' to denote extent or degree, etc.: as
 - 'how fine or excellent!'

'if one forces its way into his clothes 'اگر کوئی اُسکے کپّڑوں مبس گُهس کر and bites him, how restless he کیا (= گیسا) بے قرار becomes.

397. كيابكا like the English what—what, and whether—or, are used correlatively to connect sentences: e.g.

what night and what day?' or 'whether in the night or in the day.'

'vhether in joy or sorrow?' كيا خُوشي أوركيا تشّوِيش مس

398. The Interrogatives are used in *indirect* as well as direct questions: in such cases the interrogative clause generally stands as *object* to a preceding negative verb, or an interrogative sentence that is equivalent to a negative: e.g.

نوں کہ وُد کوں (شنجُص (sc. کیا جائبوں کہ وُد کوں (شنجُص (what know I (= I don't know) who (what person) he is?'

he did not know who lived (lit. lives) in that house, and whose أَسْكُوهُ عَنُّوهُ مِنْ تَهَا كِهُ أُسُ مِكَانَ مِبِي lives) in that house, and whose that grand mansion was (lit. is).

Rem. a. In such sentences the verb of the governing clause must always be either directly or indirectly negative, otherwise the interrogative cannot be employed; a sentence like هَمَين جَانْتا هُون كَ وُد كُون هي is unidiomatic and wrong. It betrays a misconception of Urdū idiom to say of sentences like those given above that "the Interrogative is used instead of the Relative."

Rem. b. The interrogative particles آیا 'is it?' 'whether?' and کَمُونَّكُر 'how?' are also used in interrogative sentences, the latter commonly: e.g. آیا یہ حالت فاعِل کی بیان کٹرتا کھی یا مفّعُول کِی 'does this indicate the state of the agent or of the object?' تُم یہاں کیونکر آئے 'how did you come here?'

V. THE INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

399. The indefinite pronouns کوئی some, any, a, a certain, etc., and خونه some, a few, a little, etc., when used substantively, apply, the former to living beings, the latter to things only; but as adjectives either may be connected with any noun, whether this denote a person or a thing. The pronoun کوئی to a great extent supplies the place of the English indefinite article: it is declined in the singular only, and is not commonly connected with a plural noun (see Rem. below), never perhaps with a plural of persons:

if a confidential servant commit 'اگرکوٹِي مُقرّب خِمانت کري يا اَور treachery or be guilty of any other offence.'

when a bee of another hive wishes ' جب کوئي مکتبي دُوسَري چيتھے to come.'

in a certain region of Hindustan ' هنڈوسنان کے کِسِي خِطّے میں ایک there was a king.'

'bring some water.' كُچه پاني الوَّ

'I have some doubt respecting this.' مُجهٰكُو اِس مَس كُچند شك هَي

I A recent writer on Urdū grammar terms the use of huchh with a plural noun "uncommon" and "inelegant." We can confidently affirm that it is commonly so used by the best native writers, and they are certainly the best judges of the "elegance" of the construction. The same writer doubts the use of kuchh in application to persons, that it is so used will be seen from the seventh and eleventh of the above examples.

this is somewhat better than that. یہہ اُس سے کُچے (= کِسِی قدر) بہتر ھي

he (this man) too is something of a بہہ بیبی کُچہ آڈویی ھی

perhaps some improper word شاید کیجیه نامُناسِب باتیں میری escaped my lips (lit. tongue).'

and having made some screens, 1 أور كَچه للتّبان بناكر درخمت كيے أوير بانده ليس tied (them) upon the tree.'

they found some of the young one's 'بَحُونِ کِي گُجِهِ هَذَيانِ دُرخَت كِي ہجے اور کچھ گدھ کے کھنڈھلے مسر بائس

bones under the tree, and some in the vulture's hollow.'

many men who were on its back, بہُت سے آڈمی کِ اُسْکِی پُشْت ر نہے گجہ ینسوٹیوں پراور کجھ سرکر جہاز یہ آگئے

some in boats and some by swimming, came on board the ship."

though of the interrogative كُسُو , though of frequent occurrence in the older literature, is now seldom used.

Rem. b. كوئي uninflected is sometimes used in connection with 4 توانی دی عریب خانے میں plural substantive denoting a thing; as 'grace for a few days this humble dwelling;' but this construction is not common, چند or کینے being more generally used in place of كوئيي 'a few,' and in the sense of some or certain, the pronominal adjective بغض or بعضي being usually employed with a plural substantive: e.g.

'certain historians have written' بعض مُؤرَّخِين نے لِکھا ھی

¹ Similarly of the two forms کدھو کمئو کمئو the latter are now commonly used instead of the former.

it is the habit of some ignorant and 'بعضے جاهِل آور کمینے لوگوں کي low people.'

میں سی حصی سی اللہ 'I would question your Highness ' بعضی بعضی باتیں حُضُور میں about-certain matters.'

Rem. c. کئي 'several,' is not the plural of کئي, as some grammarians suppose, but a distinct pronominal adjective, derived (like کي 'how many') from the Sanskrit कति kati.

Rem. d. The particle سا may be added to the indefinite pronouns to intensify the signification: as كوئي سا any one whatever.'

400. In connection with a following negative the indefinite pronouns are equivalent to our 'no,' 'no one,' 'none,' 'none at all ' e.g.

'no (not a) rebel remained in the kingdom.'

أوركسى أوركاجي سے نہ كنبلا 'and it opened with no other key.' ''no benefit will be derived.'

اس کجید کیانے پسنے کی چبزیں اس 'no eatables and drinkables are 'کجید کیانے بسنے کی چبزیں اس obtainable in these parts.'

Rem. کُچنه in combination with other pronouns and pronominal adjectives has other significations, corresponding to our 'all,' 'ever so much,' etc.: e.g. أور مَس أبك ها تبول سے يه کُچنه دُکه ديکيو 'while I experience all this pain at their hands;' اگر کوئي ايک دانه بوتا هي تو أس 'if one sows a single seed, what an immense quantity springs from it!'

401. کُچنے مسلم , and کُچنے میں, are equivalent to our one—another: e.g.

one says one thing, another (says) کوئِی گُچھ۔ کہّنا ھَی کوئِی گُچھ

one commits a fault, another receives 'گناد کوئی کری سزا کوئی یاوی the punishment.'

one holds to a religion as an heir- کوئی تو باب دادي کي ميراث کے طَور ير كِسي مذهب كا قابض هی۔ اور کِسِی نے دُنیا کِی دَولت و عزّت کے واسطے منزلزل دیں اِخْتِیار کر لِیا هی

loom from his ancestors, another has made choice of an unsound (lit. shaky) faith for the sake of worldly wealth and honour.'

قلانا مَ فَلان , فَلان , فَلان (e.g. مُقلام) Rem. The indefinite pronominal adjectives 'such-and-such,' or substantively, 'so-and-so,' كلَّى 'several,' etc , § 155), are constructed as ordinary adjectives, and call for no special notice.

VI. THE REFLEXIVE PRONOUN.

402. The Reflexive Pronoun آپ 'myself,' etc., singular and plural (§ 150), is employed as an emphatic appositive تاكيد), see $Rem. \S 276$) to a noun or personal pronoun (expressed or understood) which forms the subject of a sentence: as

> 'Mohan himself will come.' موهن آپ آئيگا 'I myself went there.' مَين آب وهار , گما

for this reason (he) himself also أِس لِبنْ (دُّه ،se) آپ بهي عَيش used to live in case and enjoyment.' 'nor shall (he) himself go near any أور نه (وُد .sc) آپ كِسِي كيے ياس

ود آپ هي آيا . e.g. آپ a may be added to آب د آب هي آيا . he himself came;' and instead of آب the Persian pronoun خود often occurs: as کسي کے واسطے کُوا مت کبود کِ (تُو se.) خُود گِریگا dig not a pit for any one, for you yourself will fall.'

403. آپ may also be added emphatically to its own inflected forms, and the word بني may even be omitted, as the personal pronoun in the Nominative is (§ 402): e.g.

in that case he should blame 'نواپنے آپ کو ملامت کرنی himself.'

'you consider yourself faultless.' تُو (اپنے مر) آد خو بے

'a darwesh, holding himself aloof ایک درویش (ابنیه sc) آب کوڈنیا from the throng of the world.'

Rem. h. آب is perhaps never used alone in the sense of 'self,' its original signification. When used without obvious reference to a distinct subject, it commonly relates to an unexpressed pronoun of the first person, or to an indefinite noun understood, and must therefore be rendered myself, or himself: e.g. آپنا (se. اَبَات (se. پر پسند نه کري (se. آب) 'a thing which (any one) dislikes (done) to himself.'

404. a. The Genitive of آي , the Reflexive Pronominal Adjective الله , is always used in place of the Possessive

Adjectives تيرا my, otc., when these occur (in connection with a noun in the Accusative or in an oblique case) in the same sentence with the subject to which they refer: c.g.

Sindbad began to relate the story of ' سنڈباد نے اپنے دُوسري سفر کا حال ' Sindbad began to relate the story of his second voyage.'

'I came out from my hiding-place.' مَس ایْنے چَبِیّنے کِي جگہہ سے 'I came out from my hiding-place.'

'and we sold our goods here and there.' أور هم نے اپّنا اسباب جا بجا بیتجا 'do you now go home.' اِس وَقَت تُم اَپّنے گھر جاؤ 'they took me along with them.'

b. But if the possessive adjectives occur in a sentence which has a distinct subject, or if they stand in the Nominative, the regular forms تيرا, ميرا, etc., are used: e.y.

they beat me and my son.' مجبے اور مبری ببتے کو مارا 'my mind also coveted.'

Rem. a. اپنا (for my, or om) is sometimes found in connection with a substantive which is the subject of the proposition, but this is not to be imitated: e.g. اپنیا (better اپنیا) 'my mind also was seduced;' اپنیا (better اپنیا) نوکرو رفیقوں نے جب یہ غظت دیکھی (better اپنیا) 'when my servants and my associates perceived this neglect; اپنیا 'sur (one's) honour is in our own keeping (lit. hands).'

Rem. b. اپنا (as also میرا) is often omitted when no ambiguity can arise therefrom: e.g. (میرا) نام بولنے سے دوکا (T restrained (my) tongue from lying; غیبت سُننے میں جومزا آتا تنا اُسکودل سے بیالا دیا 'I effaced from (my) mind (lit. heart) the pleasure I used to derive from listening to slander.'

is also used substantively to signify my, thy, etc., property, or kindred: as

what has possessed thee, that thou ' تُجبَ كو كيا هُوا كِ دُوسَّرا كا مال اپّنا (callest another's property thine !

they perceive no difference between ' اپنے آور بیگانے میں کیچہ فرق their kindred and strangers.'

'he came to his own.'

406. The Ablative آپ سے آپ, or emphatically آپ سے آپ, is commonly employed as an adverb: e.g.

he came here himself, or of his own accord.'

'it grows spontanecusly.' وُد آب سے آب اُگْتا هَي

Rem. In place of نے د بہ نخود the Persian phrase آپ سے آپ is often used: as

'my mind of itself got so out of tone' طبعت خُود به خُود آیسي بے (listless, lit. insipid).

CHAPTER X.

THE VERB.

a) VERBAL NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

I. THE INFINITIVE.

407. The Infinitive is properly a Gerund or verbal noun, and as such can form the subject or object of a verb, or stand in any case (except the Vocative), like any other substantive. It differs however from an ordinary substantive, 1) in being used in the singular number only; and 2) in taking an objective complement after it, if it be derived from an active-transitive verb: e.g.

to lie (or lying') is wrong. جَهُولَهِ بُولُنَا بُرا هَي the habit of jesting.

when a bee of another hive wishes 'جب کوئی مکّبِی فوسّری چہتے 'when a bee of another hive wishes کی آنا چامْتِی هَی

anger arises from reproaching 'سُرْزِنِش کُرِّنے سے غُتّہ پَیدا ہوتا ہی 'anger arises from reproaching (= reproach).'

"what shame is there in eating?' کھانے میں شرم کیا کی

408. a. If only the objective complement of the infinitive (and not likewise the subject) be expressed, it may

¹ The English scholar will not require to be told that lying and to he are both infinitive forms.

be put in the Genitive, or either of the two forms of the Accusative: e.g.

they think nothing of uttering such ' أيسِي بات کے زبان سے نِکاٽنے میں ' they think nothing of uttering such ' سُکو کُھے۔ خبال نہبں آتا words.'

to make (or, the making of) all the 'کُل آلِّت کا بنانا بہایت هِي implements (required) is highly inconceivable.'

they consider the seeing (= sight) ميرا ديكهنا مآخُوس جائت هيں of me unlucky.'

'to leave his mark in the world.' خَنْفَ مبن اپَّنِي نشاني چهوڙنا 'to sacrifice (one's) freedom cannot 'آزادِي کو کبو دینا کسِي حال میں in any case be deserving of commendation.'

b. But if the subject be likewise expressed, this is usually put in the Genitive, and the objective complement in the Accusative: e.g.

'Art's producing a resemblance to طبیعت کے ساتھ صناعت کا تشبّہ Nature.'

409. If the Genitive of the Gerund be subjective, or if it be governed by one of the postpositions واسطى, etc., it may generally be rendered by the English gerund with to: e.g.

the power to tell would fail me, and نه مُجه میں قُدَّرت کہنے کِي اَور the power to tell would fail me, and نه مُجه میں طاقت سُننے کِي the patience to listen (would fail) رهیگِي

not be in me, nor the power to listen in thee').

to break (lit. for the purpose of breaking) sticks.'

. 410. The Genitive of the Infinitive is commonly used in connection with the verbal negative (§ 148, Rem.) to express a strong negative Future: e.g.

411. The Dative of the Gerund occurs after intransitive verbs, and such transitive verbs as govern both a dative and an accusative, and commonly expresses *purpose*; it may therefore be generally rendered in English by the gerund with to: 1 e.g.

give a house near yourself for me to اپنے نزدیک میری اُترنے کو مکاں stay in (lit. alight).

Rem. The postposition کو is often omitted: as وي ديکښت (کو) گئے sthey went to see; کښت (اکو الله کرنے (کو الله کرنے کښت 'they have come to examine thee.'

412. The Dative of the Gerund in connection with the verbs هَي and تبا expresses the intention to perform an act: e.g.

[&]quot;It is difficult to distinguish this (i.i. the dative of the verbal noun)," a recent writer on Urdū Grammar observes, "from the infinitive; in fact the dative form may always be rendered by an infinitive." On this it is necessary to remark that the dative of the gerund is not the infinitive, although 'to' precedes it. In the expression "he had to learn," to learn is the infinitive, and the object of the verb liked; but in "he came to learn," to learn is the gerund in the dative, and expresses the purpose—"he came for learning."

'at the very instant that I was 'اُسِي وقّت کِ مَيں درّیا میں going to east myself into the sea, a ship appeared far off coming (towards me).'

413. The Infinitive in combination with the verb $\ensuremath{\mbox{\ensuremath{\wp}}}$ is used to indicate the contemporaneousness of an action with another expressed by a finite verb in a following clause: c.g.

the young man had but just reached جوان کا دروازي پرآنا تها کِ ووٽمِيس the door when at the same moment the master of the house arrived.

and they had searcely put their feet أور پاٺو كوڙي بردهرنا تها كه گِر پڙي on the rubbish when down they fell (into the pit).'

414. The Infinitive is often used in the sense of the Imperative, in both affirmative and negative sentences, but generally with more force than the ordinary Imperative. The negative particles employed in this construction are 3 and ..., the latter being prohibitive: e.g.

'come to my place.' مسري هاں آنا 'whatever they say, consider it true.' جویسے کہیں اُسّکو سے جائنا 'never think of this!' زِنّهاریه خیال نہ کڑنا 'don't you go home to-day.'

415. Gerundive Forms.—The Infinitive or Gerund, not only of transitive, but also of intransitive verbs, is frequently used as a Gerundive, agreeing in gender and number with its object if the verb be transitive, or with its predicative noun if the verb be U. This construction (in

which the Gerund usually occurs in the nominative form as subject or object, but occasionally also in the genitive) is employed in two ways: 1) the Gerund (with its object, if the verb be transitive) in combination with one of the to be مونا verbs بنها , هُوي , or one of the tenses of the verbs or become,' by 'to fall,' or with such quasi-impersonal phrases as لازم هَي , مُناسب هَي , والدر , etc., il is necessary, proper, or right, is used as an impersonal phrase to denote that a certain action is to be done (is settled to be done, should or must be done, is fit, proper, or necessary), the subject of the action (if a definite subject is spoken of) being put in the Dative: or 2) the Gerund with its object (if the verb be transitive), or its predicative substantive (if the verb be هونا), may form the subject, or object, of a following verb without expressing the idea of duty, etc: e.g.

'I have to go' (mihi cundum est). مُجنِكُو جانا هُي 1) 'I had to remain for (my) friend's sake.' 'you will have to write.' ثُم كو إِلَيْهَمَا هوكا

-we shall have to endure the con إس غلط فهمي كا نتيجه بهُمَّتنا يزينًا sequences of this mistake (misapprehension).'

which of those matters that should 'جو کہنے کِی بات هَي کَونَسِي نہِيں ' which of those matters that should be spoken of do we not mention?' کہتے ' if you had determined to act with

such unsociableness.'

**such unsociableness.'

**the works which a human being جو کام اِنْسان کو کرنے پڑتے هَب has to do.'

the seeker after it has to endure ' أَسْكِ طَالِبٍ كُوسِخْت تَكْلِيف أُور مشتمين أتهاني يؤني هين severe trials and hardships.'

'we should now reflect a little.' اب همکو فرّد فِکْر کَرْنِی چاهِیئے 'we should so act in (our) life-time.' زنّدگِی میں آیسے کام کڑنے چاهِییں 'he should be punished,' or 'it is right to punish him.'

2) دُشْمن سے دوسْتِي كِي توقّع 'it is unreasonable to expect friendship from an enemy.'

and I also practised physicing the ' أور بيماروں كو دوا داڑو دينِي بهِي sick.'

باڑی ہتی کشیبوں کِی طرف 'they began throwing huge stones ' باڑی ہیں کہ نے شروع کِبلے میں ملائے شروع کِبلے

بہتے سروع بہتے ہوتے ہوتے۔ اُنٹس ناطقہ کے تُکُرِّی ہونے 'if the divisibility of mind (lit. of the rational soul) be possible.'

Rem. The choice between the Gerund and the Gerundive is determined entirely by cuphony, or the mere pleasure of the writer. Some writers therefore retain the Gerund (فکر کرنی) more frequently than others. Dehlī authors exhibit a preference for the Gerundive (فکر کرنی). To say, as some grammarians do, that these Gerundive forms are "compounds, like 'fox-hunting,' 'speech-making,'" and that "compounds are occasionally found in which the words do not agree," is simply absurd. Perhaps these writers would say that in Ars puerorum educandorum difficilis est, "puerorum educandorum" is a compound, signifying "boy-educating." The Panjābī, we may observe, regularly uses the Gerund as a Gerundive. The Sindhī has a distinct Gerundive, differing however but slightly in form from the Infinitive: e.g. Inf.

II. THE NOUN OF AGENCY.

416. The Noun of Agency holds a middle position between the verb and the noun, and partakes of the force

of both, following the government either of the verb or the noun, or of both. If it be derived from a directly transitive verb and have the meaning of the Present or Future, it may take an objective complement in the Genitive or the Accusative; but if it have the meaning of the Perfect, it approaches more nearly to the character of the noun, and is therefore construed with the Genitive alone: e.g.

those who restrain (or shall restrain) غُصَّه فرو كرّنب واليه their wrath.'

O builders of (ye who build) houses أي شهروس كے بنانے والے in cities!

bring the writer of (him who has written) this letter to me.'

except this dog there was none 'except this dog there was none who mourned for me (I had no mourner).'

417. It is also commonly used as the predicate of a preceding subject to express a proximate future: e.g.

he is about going to Dillī.' وُه دِلَّى جانِے والا هَي 'he will die in (the course of) a day or so' (lit. to-day or to-morrow).

Rem. The above rules also apply to the Arabic and Persian nouns of agency and verbal adjectives which occur so commonly in Urdū; with this difference however, that when these govern the accusative, they generally stand as the predicate of a preceding subject: e.g.

'a seeker after rank and wealth.' مال و رُتْبه كا خواستُكار

'I am not a seeker of sustenance نہیں میں طالِبِ روزِی آسماں سے from heaven.'

'it will hinder us from (progress) in

all works.'

The construction with the genitive however is much the more common of the two, even in the case of the Hindi noun of agency.

III. THE PARTICIPLES.

- 418. The Participles express the same notion as the verb to which they belong, but (excepting the Past Conjunctive Participle) in the form of an Adjective. They follow the government of the verb from which they are derived.
- 419. The participles are frequently employed to describe a contemporary, past, or future, action connected with the main action. The relations and circumstances expressed by them must often be expressed in English by subordinate propositions with conjunctions (e.g. while, during, when, after, as soon as, etc.), or by phrases with prepositions.

a) THE IMPERFECT AND PERFECT PARTICIPLES.

- 420. The Imperfect and Perfect, or (if it belong to a transitive verb) Passive Participle have so much in common as regards their use and construction that they may be conveniently noticed together. When used adjectively they are usually distinguished by the addition to them of the perfect participle کرا; but this is often omitted.
- 421. These participles are frequently used to indicate the state or condition (حال) of the subject or object of an

action while the action is taking place. Their agreement with the *subject* is in such cases determined by the following rules:

- 1) If the subject of the participle be likewise that of the finite verb, the participle agrees with it in gender and number: e.g.
- (a). یہہ کہتے ہُوئی چلِی گلِی 'she went away saying this.' اُن سے لزّتا بھِزّتا اُس چاہ پر آیا '(the dog) came to the dungeon fighting and struggling with them (all the way).'
- ا کرتي پڙتي بڙي دِقت سے يہاں' I dragged myself along and (lit. falling and lying I) got here with great difficulty.'
- ' all at once the mother entered her ایکبار گی اُسکی ما روتی پیلئتی بیلی daughter's house weeping and beating (herself).
- (b). دَسْتَرِخُواں بِحِهَا هُوا تَهَا 'the table-cloth was spread.' دَسْتَرِخُواں بِحِهَا هُوا تَهَا 'some woman was seated (or sitting).' أنه 'his beard (which is quite) white hangs (is hanging) down to his breast.'
- 'grains (of corn) are lying before him.' اُسْکے سام جَنے دانے پڑي هُوئے هَيں 'this brother was lying awake.' یہ بھائی لیٹا هُوا جاگتا تھا 'the moment (that) some wine jars 'جونہیں رنگت کے حِباب
- the moment (that) some wine jars جوسیس ربکت کے حِباب and flagons of various colours نظر پڑیں (which were) arranged on the shelves fell under my eye.'

- 'I saw pieces of diamond strewn 'about' (lit. 'pieces of diamond were seen strewn about by me').
- 2) But if the subject of the participles is not the same as that of the finite verb, both participles are constructed absolutely in the Locative singular, the postposition being suppressed; and the subject of the Imperfect Participle is often omitted: e.g.
- (a). سارِي رات تلپيت كتي 'the whole night passed in restlessness' (lit. 'I being agitated').
 - 'I said, weeping and sobbing the 'is said, weeping and sobbing the 'while.'
- (b). اَن سے ازّتا بَارِتا رواّی کو بچائے (the dog) fighting and struggling with them came to the dungeon with the bread saved.'
 - 'I was standing with my head hung 'i was standing with my head hung'
 - you go showing your back (your back shown).'
- In short he came to the mouth of خرض پیر زن کو لبئے خُوئے غار کے the pit with the old woman (the old woman brought with him).
 - the princess came out dressed in ملک مُبلے کیّری پہنے باہر نِکلِي dirty clothes.'
- 'I was sitting with my arm thrown مَيں أُس جوان كے گلے ميں بانهم round the young man's neck.'

In this example the subject of the verb \(\sigma \) is the following clause (the or that which is said), and the subject \(\cdot \) the participle is the pronoun of the first person—it was said by me (as follows), and I was acceptage.

if an elephant with his chain broken ' اگر ایک هاتبی زنجیر تُوائی هوئی were (lit. should be) coming.'

آتا هو آتا هو نمین اَپنی قبرسمجھے ' I was under the impression that

'I was under the impression that that defile would prove my grave' مُولِيَّة تَهَا لَمُ لَلَّهُ لَهُ اللَّهُ لَهُ اللَّهُ لَهُ اللَّهُ اللَّا اللَّهُ اللَّهُ

which were with their head to de of their holes.'

a snake is (there is a make with a space) ایک مینڈک کو سائپ پکڑی کھی frog caught' ('a snake is mor').

a (or the) python which is with (has) its mouth wide open.'

Rem. The subject of the participle must necessarily be different from that of the finite verb when the participle is passive and, together with its object (Acc.), forms the \mathcal{L} of the subject of the finite verb; for when this object takes the nominative form of the accusative, it stands as the subject of the participle, and when it occurs in the dative form, the construction becomes impersonal (§§ 306, 308). This will become evident if we take the first of the above examples (b) and resolve it into the different predications contained in it: e.g. 'the dog came to the dungeon, and he was fighting all the time he was coming, and the bread was saved by him,' or strictly, 'it was saved by him as regards the bread.'

We have thought it necessary to multiply examples on this subject, because, firstly, the subject is one of importance, and secondly, its treatment in all existing grammars is most unsatisfactory. One of the most recent actually teaches that and علين are not perfect, or rather passive participles, but "irregular forms of the conjunctive participle!" and that in the last two examples above مما عند "forms of the perfect," signifying "has caught" and "has opened;" and no grammar attempts to lay down anything like a rule to guide the student in the use and construction of the participles.

- 3) If the Participle in either case be repeated for *emphasis*, or to indicate a *lasting* or *continuous state*, or even if such a state be implied without the repetition of the participle, it is always constructed *absolutely*, even though its subject be the same as that of the finite verb: *e.g.*
- (a). قرتے قرتے میں پاس گیا 'I approached (it) in great fear (fearing much).'
- سَزْل د مَنْزل چِلْتِے چَلْتِے نَیشاپُور 'marching on stage by stage I منزل د منزل چِلْتے چَلْتے نیشاپُور arrived in Naishāpūr.'

'we keep singing while we stitch.'

(but I wearied of sitting still.' لیکِن بے کار ببتھے بیتھے اُلکتا گیا اُلکتا گیا

'you have unjustly defamed and نوب نجبی بَمِلْیِی بِالله الله disgraced me scated quietly (i.e. inoffensively).'

she, continued listening silently, فره چبکے بُت کبی طرح seated like a statue.'

Rem. In sentences like the last but one, where the passive construction with \succeq is used, and the first is simply a perfect participle, the second must take the form of its causative in order to possess a passive character; but the signification differs in no respect by this change.

422. a. When the participles describe the state or condition of the object, they are somewhat differently constructed. In such cases the object usually occurs in the dative form of the accusative, and hence the concord between it and the participle is disturbed: but whereas the Imperfect Participle may be optionally put in the nominative or the locative absolute, the Perfect, or

Passive Participle always takes the form of the nominative: e.g.

(a). معْلُوم هُوا کِ دو شَخْصُوں کو 'it appeared that they had (lit. have) حورِي کرّتے پکڙا هَي caught two persons stealing.'

'I left him sleeping by a spring.' مَبَس نِے أَسْكُو چَشْمِے پر سُوتا چپوڙا 'one day having seen him entering the palace they seized him.'

seeing him weeping he asked,' etc.

(b). اندها هُوا نادها کيوڙي کو ميخ سے سندها هُوا 'I saw the horse fustened to a peg.'

from that time (forward) he thinks ' أُس وفّت سے مُجبہے مُوا هُوا شوا شوا كُرْتا هِي me dead.

he all along thought me (supposed ' وُد مُجهِكُو تُدُوبا هُوا جَانَّنا تَهَا that I had been) drowned.'

- b. The construction is the same if the object be a following clause introduced by λ : as ایک روز کِتاب مبس بهی لکها که one day he saw written in a book also, that,' etc.
- c. If the object occur in the nominative form of the accusative, the Participle will of course agree with it.

Rem. Of the two forms of the Imperfect Participle, the nominative is perhaps the correct one; at all events it is more in harmony with the construction of the Perfect Participle; and its regular use would moreover have the advantage of removing all ambiguity in sentences which have the passive construction with ... For example منين في signifies both 'I saw him whilst I was swimming,' and 'whilst he was swimming;' but if the participle be تيرتا done of these significations is admissible.

423. a. Distinct from the use of the participles as a ... is their use to indicate that an action takes place immediately after or simultaneously with another action expressed by the finite verb. The emphatic particle is added to the Imperfect Participle to indicate exact coincidence in point of time in the two actions. cases the participles are always constructed absolutely.

The subject of the Imperfect Participle may be the same as that of the finite verb (whereby, as also by the partieiple not taking the adjective form with is, it is distinguished from the إلسم حاليه), or it may be different. the latter case, if the subject is expressed, it is put in the Formative or the genitive, the latter being the more common when the subject is animate.

The subject of the Perfect Participle is usually different from that of the finite verb, and is put in the Formative: e.g.

(a). فیجُر هوتے وَّد رُخْصت هُوا 'he took his departure on dawn appearing.'

on the order being given they عُكُم هوتے وُہ كيوڈنے لگے commenced digging.'

'as soon as the merchant saw (this), خواج نے دیکنت ھي خاطِر دارِي he ministered consolation.' کي 'immediately on hearing this, anger

¹ Some grammarians mistakenly suppose that the imperfect participle must always be inflected when the partiele is added to it, and hence pronounce this sentence ungrammatical · مُجهِ جيتاهي زمين کا پَيونَد کردو ground alive (as I am).' The sentence is however quite grammatical; is not the so-called "adverbial participle," but the he' of the object mighe.

- 'I no sooner became detached than 'no sooner became detached than it swooped down upon a boa-constrictor.'
- (b). کنوں اِتَّنِي رات گئے تُم آئے (why have you come at this late hour of the night?' ('when so much of the night is gone').
 - when one (the first) watch of the day was reached (when day had risen to one watch), I came down.'
- b. If the Imperfect Participle has an objective complement expressed, this is put in the accusative or the genitive: e.g.
- we all fled on the instant of seeing 'them.'
- the young man became as delighted 'جوان آسکے دیکہ تے ہی آیسا خُوش at the sight of her as if he had obtained the wealth of the world.'

Rem. The use of the objective complement in the genitive serves to show that the participle in such cases partakes of the character of the noun as well as that of the verb.'

- 424. In its adjective form either participle may be employed, 1) as an adjective defining a noun (either with the signification of a relative periphrasis, or to express a quality or state in general); and 2) as a substantive, concrete or abstract. As an abstract substantive the Imperfect Participle is equivalent to the Gerund: e.g.
 - 1) As an adjective:
- (a). سب میں نادان وُد هَي ک 'unwisest of all is he who rouses 'unwisest of all is he who rouses 'unwisest of all is he who rouses slumbering strife' (cf. § 47, Rem.b.).

'a talking mainā.' ایک بولتی هُورِئی مَینا

'having seen a revolving millstone.' چڵتِي چڱي ديکھ

if you bid (mo), I will leap into اگر حُكْم كرو تو جلَّتِي آگٿ ميں burning fire.

(b). جما هُوا عرق كَافُور كَبُلاتا هَي 'the congealed juice is called camphor.'

a written paper, or a paper with writing on it.'

'it may be some dead animal.' کوئی مُنوا جانّور هوگا

2) As a substantive.

(a). فرنتے کو ننکے کا آسرا بہات ہے ہوت ہوتے کو ننکے کا آسرا بہات ہے . a drowning man' ('a drowning man elings to a straw').

'heawokeme from sleeping (= sleep).'

'to be confident because of possessing نسباب ہوتے (= ہونے پر) تو گال

(= the possession of) property is

not well or becoming.'

(b). آزمائی کو پیرکیا آزماؤں 'to what purpose should I again test what has been tested.'

'I am come as the emissary of the snake.'

ا اینے کیئے سے پہناتا دُوں 'I am suffering remorse in consequence of my deed.'

'a band of those who had experienced ' راہ مبس ہزیمت کھائے دُووں کا defeat having arrived on the road.'

Rem. This use of the participles corresponds to that of the Active and Passive Participles—the إِنَّامُ فَاعِلُ and أَنَّامُ فَأَعُولُ and Passive Participles—the إِنَّامُ فَأَعُولُ عَلَيْهِ اللَّهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ اللَّهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ اللَّهِ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهِ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهُ عَلَيْهِ عَلَي

425. The Perfect or Passive Participle is commonly used for the Infinitive, chiefly in connection with the quasi-impersonal verb عامبئے: c.g.

the work which (you) ought to do 'جو کام آج کِیا (= کرنا) چاهیئے

we should not rejoice at (in con- دُشَمن کِي مَوت سے خُوش نہ هُوا sequence of) the death of an enemy.'

426. The Perfect or Passive Participle is also used as an abstract (verbal) substantive in combination with the verb جانا, when this is equivalent to هو سكيا, and in the Frequentative and Desiderative Compounds (§ 24 and Rem.); e.g.

> 'I could not drown myself' (lit. 'drowning was not possible by me').

'there's no fighting against fate.' تندير سے لڙا نہيں جاتا

i kept wandering about (lit. I did ' مَس دِن بهرأس جنَّكُل ميں پهراكِيا or made wandering) in that jungle the whole day.'

Rem. Observe also the following: "mind what I say' (lit. 'my saying-what I shall say, or am about to say').

427. The Passive Participle, when governed by one of the postpositions بغير, or بغير, has in some instances an active signification: e.g.

that without my bidding (thee) thou کے بے میری کہے میری ساتھ کھانا eatest food with me.' کہاتا ھَيَ ۔ how can he keep alive without ' بغیر کہائے کیُونّکر زِنْدہ رہ سکتا ھی

eating?'

b) THE PAST CONJUNCTIVE PARTICIPLE.

428. a. The Past Conjunctive Participle is very often used in Urdū so as to avoid the use of conjunctions where several predications are united in the one sentence: e.g.

'having said this, he went away.'

having invented some pretext, and کُچ بات بناکراَور جواهراَور پوشائ having taken the jewels and dress, ما لیکر اَور قِیمت اُسکی دیکر and having given the price thereof,

I requested permission to go' (i.e. 'I invented some pretext, and after taking the jewels and dress and paying for them, I requested,' etc.).

b. We sometimes find a preceding verb repeated in the participle: as

'he rose, and having risen went out.' وُد أَتَّهَا أُور أَتَهَكُر باهر گيا 'the juice having flowed (out), عرق به كرايك برّتن ميں جمّع دوكر جم collects in a vessel, and having حاتا هَي أور جمّع هوكر جم collected, congeals.'

429. The participle most commonly refers, as in the above examples, to the subject of the finite verb, or, if the construction be passive, to the Agent. In the latter case, when the participle is λ , and a predicative adjective or participle is joined to it, this, if capable of inflection, is always put in the inflected masculine singular: e.g.

the young man became cool and ' أس جوان نے رُوکھے بھیکے هوکر constrained, and said.'

and having become angry, I ordered أور كَيِسْيانِي هوكر فرَّمايا ك that,' etc.

'after that, having stood up, he read 'بعد اُسکے کھڑي ھوکر يہہ خُطّبہ پڑھا this discourse.'

430. But the participle may refer to the object (dative, accusative); and in the same sentence one participle may refer to the subject, and another to the Agent: e.g.

having heard this, jealousy possessed me 'having heard this, jealousy possessed me 'also.'

also.'

there is no assured refuge anywhere to

there is no assured refuge anywhere to خدا کے حُکم سے بھاگت کر flee to from God's decree' (lit. 'having fled, or fleeing from, God's decree, there is no assured refuge for you to go to').

at last, having made me promise and انجر وقدد أن چینزوں كو swear that I would return after leaving those things (at home), he let me go.

the princess having become pleased, the princess having become pleased, the trays (of jewels, etc.) were made over to the steward, and she said.'

431. The participle may even be used absolutely, without reference to a subject, as is the case when the finite verb is in the passive voice: c.g.

he was dug out alive' (' they having 'é کپود کر جِیتا نِکالاگیا dug, he was taken out alive').

432. The participle is often repeated for the sake of *emphasis*, or to indicate a *repeated* or *continued* action: as

we kept breaking the fruits and collecting them.'

پتھر مار مار کے سب کِشْتِیاں ڈُبو 'having kept on throwing stones, they sank all the boats.'

433. In some instances the Conjunctive Participle has all the force of an adverb, and would appear to be used as such: *e.g.*

'he did this wittingly' أس نے جان نوجهہ كريهہ كام كِيا 'he laughed aloud.'

'I made that book over to him چنپا کر وُد کناب آورکتابوں کے secretly along with others.'

'I tied it tight.'

'he walks lame.'

b. THE INDICATIVE AND ITS TENSES.

I. THE ACRIST.

434. The Aorist, though more commonly employed in the Subjunctive Mood, is also used in propositions, both leading and subordinate, which deal with *facts*, whether actual or assumed for the purpose of argument; in other words, it occurs in the *Indicative Mood*.

The Aorist does not in itself express any idea of time; it merely indicates a begun, incomplete, enduring existence either in present or future time. Hence it has the signification of the English Present, as well as that of the Future Indefinite: e.g.

'God knows.' خدا جانے

اب مَيں جو کہُوں سو کر 'now do what I tell (am about to tell) you.'

when does a noble-minded man 'خُوشامد کب کری عالِي طبیعت ' when does a noble-minded man fawn upon the rich' (i.e. 'a noble-minded man never fawns upon the rich').

It came into my mind "I will 'ول میں آیا کِ پھِر سفر کرُوں travel again."'

when I die (shall die), bury me out 'جب مَيں مر جاؤں گاڙ داب of sight.'

'you sit here, I will go and announce تُم يہاں بَيتبو مَيں جاکر خبر کُرُوں (your arrival).'

he said: Come, I'll take you to the 'اُس نے کہا چلو آج تُمہیں پاڈشاد king to-day.'

435. The Aorist is commonly used in proverbs: e.g.

'when misfortune comes, a dog bites کم بختنی جو آوی أُونْت چڙهے one (who is) mounted on a camel.'

one commits the fault, another is ' كُناه كوئِي كري سزا كوئِي پاوي punished for it.'

436. To render the idea of *present* time still more distinct, the auxiliary verb هُي, وُدُوں, etc., is added to the Aorist: as

when I rub my eyes and look.' آنگئیس ملکرکے جو دیکئوں ھُوں ' when I rub my eyes and look.' آتِشِ عِشْق سے جلے ھَي دِل ' my heart burns with love's fire.' که کری ھي برگٹ گُل مرکب ' now it makes the leaf of the rose its steed' (i.e. ' one moment it mounts the rose, another it,' etc.).

But this form of the Present, though once very common, is now rarely used in Urdū (see § 189, Rem.).

437. As a present tense the Aorist is employed in narrative for a past (the *Historical Present*): e.g.

it came (was coming, lit. comes) جي ميس آوي کِ يا اِلْبِي بِهِه دم into my mind, "O God! if this breath of life depart, it is better."

- 438. The Aorist often occurs in a form identical with that of the Precative² (\S 176) in the three persons of the singular, and with nasal n added to that form in the plural: e.g.
- Most European grammarians ignere this tense altogether, and those who do notice it wrongly term it "a perfect," and generally mistake for it the perfect participle when this is used as a $h\bar{a}l$ in connection with a subject that has for its predicate one of the verbs \tilde{a} or \tilde{b} . For example, in the sentence ck midak ho $s\bar{a}n\bar{p}$ pakre har, they call pakre hai "a perfect," and translate, "the snake has caught a frog;" whereas pakr is a $h\bar{a}l$, and the translation should be a snake is (there is a snake) with a frog caught. As a finite verb pakre hai would signify "eatches," not "has caught."
- ² It does not follow that because this form is identical with that of the precative, therefore this, or, as the grammarians phrase it, "the respectful imperative," is used for the aorist. In the use of these precative forms the Hindi and Urdū follow the Prākṛit pretty closely, and the following extracts from the Prākṛita-Prakāśa (ed. Cowell, sect. vii. 20, 21) show that they are not used the one for the other, but that, though connected both in form and signification, they are yet distinct: "Jja, jjā are optionally substituted for the proper affixes of the present and the definite future, and also when command, etc., are implied: e.g. hojja, hojjā, or hoi, 'he is;' hasejjā, hasejjā, or hasaā, 'he laughs;' (and the same form applies to the three persons in both numbers;) future hojja, hojjā, hohii, 'he will be;' and similarly in the sense of the imperative." "Jja, jjā are also optionally inserted between the root and the affixes" in the same tenses; "as (present) hojjā; (future) hojjāhi, hojjāhi; (imperative) hojjāhi, hojjāhi; 'this however only occurs "when the root ends in a vowel, and is therefore monosyllabic."

(when I reached the garden), the میري دِل میں یہ خیال گُذْرا thought entered my mind, This time I will plant a vine.'

'what shall I say respecting those کیا کہئے اُن لوگوں کو جو نا فرمانی 'what shall I say respecting those people who, having rebelled, unjustly turn away from Him?'

Rem. Additional examples of this form of the Aorist will be found under the Subjunctive Mood, in which it more commonly occurs.

in the sense and after the manner of opus, necesse, est, 'it is necessary,' debet, 'it is proper or right,' operlet, 'it-behoves,' with an infinitive, or a gerundive and its substantive, or a perfect participle used as a gerund (§ 425), as the subject, the true subject or agent of the act usually preceding in the Dative, if a definite agent is implied; the agent, however, is not always expressed—rarely so if the idea of duty, etc., implied in the phrase chāhiye is of general application, or if the infinitive is accompanied by an object in the dative form of the accusative: e.g.

whatever the master wants is ready 'جو ساجب کو چاهیئے سب 'whatever the master wants is ready 'دود کمی (to be had).'

the king) should keep these people under subjection' (lit. 'to keep these people under subjection is necessary for the king').

'we should now consider a little.' اب ھمکو فارد فِکُر کُرْني چاهبئے۔ 'one should perform such acts' زِنْدگي میں آیسے کام کرنے چاهییں in life.' 'I ought to go once there also.' ایک دفعه وهاں بھِي چلا (= چلنا) چادبئے

چاهبئے the explanation of this should be 'تنسیر اسکی عالِموں سے پُوچیا' asked of the doctors of religion' (lit. 'asking the explanation of this of the doctors is necessary).

Rem. a. The agent of the act is sometimes put in the genitive in construction with an Arabic nomen actionis; as فنيركا عمل أن پر a faḥīr should act upon them.' And if the thing necessary or requisite be a quality, or that which should be found in some person or thing, the locative is generally used instead of the dative: e.g. وي 'what special qualities are those which a messenger should possess?' ('which are requisite in a messenger').

Rem. b. جاحث is also very commonly used in the Subjunctive Mood: the infinitive is then replaced by the ordinary Aorist, which follows جاحبت, and is preceded by $\leq (= \text{Latin } ut)$, the agent of the act either preceding chāhaye in the dative, or following it in the nominative: e.g. بادشاد کو چاحیث کر ان لوکوں کو معلوب رکھے 'the king should keep these people under subjection.'

Rem. c. The phrases في بفرور هي, it is necessary, right, or proper, are used in the same way as چاهيد , chiefly in the Subjunctive.

Rem. d. According to some European grammarians any "Respectful Imperative," as they term it, may be used "with a sense of obligation, and may be translated ought, should, or must." This however is not correct; chāhuye alone can, of itself, be so used. The examples given by them are such as the following: إلى قار المائية والمائية أور المائية والمائية و

440. To imply that an act should or ought to have been done, the phrase جادیئے تھا is employed: as

'thy nest ought to have been (built) تیرا گھونسلا ایک کائٹے کے درخت in some thorny bush or on the top of a wall, (and) not in the king's palace.'

Rem. The same phrase is used in the Subjunctive also (§ 167, Rem. c).

II. THE FUTURE INDEFINITE.

441. Although the Aorist itself has the signification of the simple Future, yet to render the futurity of the act quite distinct, the perfect participle \mathscr{L} (see § 187) is added to it; and thus the Future also derives the signification of an *Intentional* and a *Desiderative*: e.g.

'I shall see,' and 'I wish to, or would, see.'

eventually I shall die, and what 'آخر مر جازِّنگا تب خُدا کو کیا 'answer shall I then give to God?'

بر، بورب دوس I would question Your Highness بعضي باتيس حُفُور ميس about certain matters.'

442. The participle $\[mu]$ is also added to the Precative form of the Aorist to form the Future : e.g.

wilt thou (wouldst thou, is it thy ' يَيدا كيجبيگا آب أس شخص كو جو رُوئي زميں پر فساد آور خُون ريزي كړي

intention to) create a being who will work mischief and shed blood on the face of the earth?'

'if you pull (will pull) so (i.e. as you کو نہ چیوڙيگا

are going to do), it will not leave hold of the pulp of the brain.'

Rem. The Future and the Aorist being thus intimately connected, we often find the one used for the other, especially in conditional and hypothetical sentences, where in English the Present Indicative, or the اگر دیر لگاؤنگا تو وی اِس Present or Future Subjunctive, is used; as if I tarry long, he in this state of 'پری میں روتے روتے مرجائینگ old age will weep himse.f to death; اگر أَسْكَ فَزْدِيكُ جَاوُكِ تُو كُنْهُمَّار '; نام 'if you go near it you sin' (lit. 'will become a sinner'); غوگ کاند مجه مس فُدرت كمانے كِي أور نه تُجه مس طاقت سُننے كِي رهلكِي for (were I to attempt it), I should not have the power to tell, nor you the patience (lit. power) to listen.

III. THE PRESENT TENSE.

443. The Present Tense is used to indicate an act which is now taking place, or a repeated, habitual, or enduring act; it also commonly expresses a universal truth, e.g.

> "what is he doing?" وُد كيا كرَّتا هَي what are you looking at?' or 'what ' کیا دیکہتے ہو do you see?'

ا بحو گُچه تُو كَهْتا هَي مَس يهـ سب 'I understand all this that you are saying.'

'men conform to the ways of their 'آڈمِی آپنے پاڈشاھوں کے طریقے kings.'

this sun and moon are revolving ' رات دن یہ میکروماد بھِڑتے کھیں night and day.'

Rem. a. An act which is now taking place may also be expressed by using the perfect participle of a verb compounded with in place of the imperfect participle, for in both cases the participle is used as a hal: e.g. (a, b, b) the master is sleeping; (a, b) along the word is (a, b) and (a, b) ano

- Rem. b. The auxiliary, both in this tense and the Perfect, occasionally takes the form هُمِيكًا, which is generally more emphatic than وه على على 'he is (or I am sure he is) beating.' The auxiliary may also take this form when used independently; as آيا يه كون هُمِنگُ به 'alas! who are these?'
- 444. The auxiliary is often omitted, chiefly in negative sentences (cf. \S 148, Rcm.), and the Present then assumes the form of the Past Conditional, but the two tenses must not be confounded: c.y.

the people of the caravan do not فافِلے کے آڈمبی اِس لِیڈے نہیں 'the people of the caravan do not mention (it), because you would be ashamed.

'no one falls into a well of himself.' کوئِي آپ سے دوسے میں بہیں دِریا

And in two co-ordinate sentences, the verbs of which are both in the Present, the auxiliary of one may be omitted, unless emphasis requires it to be repeated: c.g.

'.she neither moves nor stirs' وُد نہ هِلَّتي هَي نہ گُلَّتِي

445. The Present Tense is commonly used in narrative for a past for the sake of greater vividness (the Historical Present): e.g.

when I rubbed my eyes and looked 'آنگھیس ملکر جو دیکھتا ہوں نو أس مكان مس نه وُه بُوڙها هي نہ کوئی آور کھی

(lit. when, having rubbed my eyes, I look), lo! neither that old man nor any one else was (lit. is) in that house.'

كون سُنْتا هَي

thereupon we began to weep and پیر رونے لگے آور فڑیاد آور زاری to cry aloud and wail, but what comes of it? and who hears?' (i.e. nothing came of it, etc.).

446. The Present Tense is also frequently used for the Future to indicate that an action will take place forthwith, or shortly after the time of speaking: e.g.

'you go, I also am coming (immediately).' 'I will this instant give the order.' مُسِي حُكْم كُرْتا هُون '.I shall speedily return 'جند بھر آتا دُوں

447. The Present Tense is occasionally employed in conditional sentences as a Future Subjunctive: as

if I too forlid (her), I shall be اگر مَسِين بهي منّع كرّتا هُون تو ابھي مَينا کي طرح سے مارا جاتا ھوں instantly killed as the $main\bar{a}$ has been.'

if I come according to my plighted 'if I come according to my plighted 'اگر مَسِ اپْنِي باني پر آتا هُوں تو word, I will mingle his kingdom أُسْكِي سَلْطنت كو خاك ميں ملاديتا هُم with the dust.'

¹ That is to say, "if I say I will come and do come." We know of no authority for the meaning of "one's own might," which is given to the word bant in the vocabulary of the Tota Kuhāni. The word means simply 'speech,' 'word,' and the phrase bani par ana is explained by Urdu sel plars as we have translated it.

Rem. An act which it is intended to perform (the Present Intentional) is expressed as in English: e.g. وُهُ لِكَيْنَتُ كُو هُي 'he is going to write' (see § 412.)

IV. THE PAST IMPERFECT TENSE.

448. The Past Imperfect Tense indicates an action which was going on at some past time spoken of: as

he was wandering about, looking around ' هر طرف دیکهّتا پهِرّتا تها him.'

'a very soft breeze was blowing: هَوَا نَزْم نَزْم بَهْتِي تَهِي

Rem. The same idea is expressed by using the perfect participle of a verb compounded with رهنا in place of the simple imperfect participle; أو الماتي (عنه نها رهبي (= نهاتي) تهي 'she was bathing;' مُبس آهِست آهِست بيه. 'I was repeating this verse in a very low voice.'

449. In many cases this tense must be rendered by the English Past Indefinite: as

he did whatever they told him (at 'جو بيهہ كہتے تھے سو كڑنا تھا ' the time).'

450. The auxiliary is often omitted: e.g.

every one I saw (at the time) جو کوئي آڏويي سيرِي نظر پڙتا forbade me.'

As this tense then assumes the form of the Past Conditional, it is very generally mistaken for the latter by European grammarians. The two tenses, however, are essentially different, the one occurring in the Indicative Mood alone, the other only in the Subjunctive, and never admitting of the auxiliary عن after it, as the Imperfect Indicative does. Nor can either of these tenses ever have the signification of the Present, as the grammarians affirm.

if she did not bring water, he (the 'l' اگر وُه پانِي نہ لاتِي تو یہہ اُسکے dog) broke her vessels.'

Rem. In two coordinate sentences, the verbs of both of which are in the Past Imperfect, the auxiliary is usually expressed with the last alone: as وُه شُكْرِخُدا كَا كُرْتَا أُور كُوجٍ دِر كُوجٍ چِلا جاتا تها he was thanking God and going on stage by stage.'

451. The Past Imperfect is frequently used to indicate an act that was wont to be done, and the auxiliary is then often omitted: e.g.¹

ن انام زِنَدانِ سُلَيمان 'they used to name that pit Solomon's کہتے تھے۔

Prison.'

Prison.'

Prison.'

I effaced from my mind the pleasure

'I was wont to derive from listening

to slander.'

and that complexion (or colour) أوروَّه رنَّكَ جو كُنْدن سا دمكتا تها شا بن گيا which used to glisten like bright gold became like turmeric.'

when he used to return from his جس وقت سفر سے آتا هر ايک travels, he was wont to bring لاتا أور مُجهے دیتا دیناور نافذ visited) as presents for me' (lit. 'and used to give them to me').

v. THE PAST INDEFINITE TENSE.

452. The Past Indefinite Tense indicates an action completed at some past time, and is commonly employed in narrating past events which do not involve the idea of duration. Its passive construction (when the participle

¹ See note on preceding page.

is passive), as also that of the other past tenses composed of a passive participle, has been explained in § 185, 191, etc.: e.g.

'he left it at my house on his way.' ود میری مکان بر دی گیا 'he took the road to the desert.' أس نے صغرا كي راہ ليي

453. a. After the conditional particles جو, أگر, 'if,' and after other particles (e.g. ---- 'when,' etc.), which imply the conditional meaning of , the Past Indefinite often takes a future sense, the condition being represented as already fulfilled; but it may be rendered in English by the Present: as

(if this secret is (lit. was, or became) اگریه راز فاش هُوا تو تیری حق میں بہُت بُرا ھَی divulged, it will be (lit. is) very bad for you.'

(for him to do), لبكِن ايك كام همارا هَي ـ اگرؤه اِس سے هو سکا اور خیانت نہ كِي أُورِ به خُوريني انْجِام دِيا أُور اِس اِمْتِحان مين يُورا أترا ـ تو مَیں قُول قرار کڑتا ھُوں کِ زِیادہ ماڈشاہ سے سُلُوک کُرونگا

if that can be done by this (youth), and he practises no treachery, but accomplishes it satisfactorily, and comes out perfect in this ordeal, then I promise that I will deal with him better than any king.'

b. The verbs of the principal clauses in the above sentences are in the Present and Future, but the Past Indefinite is also employed to indicate an act, the occurrence of which is so certain, that it may be described as having already taken place: as

'if the king begins to listen to the mis' اگر پاڈشاہ آیسے لوگوں کِی جُهُوتهہ سي باتيس سُننے لگا أور اصل حال کِی تحقیق پر اِلْتِفات نہ کی ۔ تو طرح طرح کی خرابیاں پیدا

representations (lit. false and true words) of such persons, and does not attempt to inquire into the actual facts of the case, various kinds of evils will result (lit. have resulted).

VI. THE PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

454. The Present Perfect (or Past Proximate) Tense indicates an act which at the moment of speaking has been already completed, and remains in a state of completion: c.g.

'he is gone to Känhpūr (Cawnpore).' 'the Rāja Ṣāḥib has killed a tiger.'

455. The auxiliary is often omitted, or in other words the Past Indefinite is used for the Present Perfect: e.g.

these four things that have been ' يبه چار باتيں جو أوپر بيان هُوئِس mentioned above.'

'naught but injury can proceed from جم گیا (ھی .80) اُس سے بجُز him in whose breast hatred has ض کے کھنے فائدہ حاصل نہ ہوگا established itself.'

Rem. In the colloquial the Present Perfect is frequently used for the Present in the sense of the Proximate Future, and in such cases the هماري ٿوپي اُور چپڙي (Master log.) هماري ٿوپي اُور چپڙي 'i am ' لايا صاحِب (Servant) ' bring my hat and stick quickly;' (Servant) جلَّد لأوَّ bringing it, Sir' (lit. 'I have brought').

VII. THE PAST PERFECT TENSE.

. 456. The Past Perfect (or Past Remote) Tense indicates that an act had taken place at the time spoken of, or anterior to some other past event spoken of or implied: e.g.

'he had come walking from a distance' وُد دُور سے چَلکر آیا تھا 'I had never heard such a thing.' مَیں نے آیسِی بات کیھِی نہ سُنی تھِی

But the auxiliary is often omitted, or in other words the Past Indefinite is used for the Past Perfect. It must however be rendered in English by the Past Perfect: e.g.

ایا سمجهایا 'I had reasoned a great deal with (اتها عند روبایا) 'Zaid.'

457. The Past Perfect is often used where in English we use the Past Indefinite; usually so when the action is regarded by the narrator as completely past, so that its results have already become manifest at the time spoken of; or when it is implied that since the occurrence of that action, another, in some way connected with it, has occurred: e.g.

'and whatever I (had) promised when 'اَور جب شیرنے میری تئیں تیری the lion (had) sent me to bring نے عہد و پَیماں کِیا تھا thee.'

the cat came (lit. had come), (and) I بِلِّي آئِي تَهِي مَيں نِے أُسْكُو لِتُولا تَهَا (had) felt her, and she was wet (and so I knew it was raining).

Rem. The Past Perfect Indicative is sometimes used for the Past Conditional, for the sake of greater vividness: as مُجهِ عَلَى اللهُ عَلْمُ عَلَى اللهُ عَلَى الل

that friend well nigh destroyed me: if it had not been for this wise enemy, my work was well nigh gone from my hands, and my life brought to a close in this vain idea.'

c. THE IMPERATIVE.

458. The Imperative has only the second person singular and plural; the other persons are supplied by the aorist. It has two forms, the Imperative proper, which is used in giving orders, directions, or advice, and the Precative (§ 176), which implies simple request, advice, entreaty, or exhortation.

Rem. The second of the Precative forms, however, often has the force of a command, as will be seen from the examples given below.

- 459. The Precative again has two forms, one ending in عرب, the other in بالم , both of which are used in either the singular or plural, the former always in connection with the pronomen reverentiee بالم , expressed or understood, the latter with the personal pronouns تُر 'thou,' and 'you.'
- 460. The Imperative, and the Precative ending in iye, are used with reference to the immediate present, or without reference to any definite time; the Precative ending in iyo most commonly refers to the Future. The addition of & to the Precative ending in iye imparts to it also a future signification, but the form is not very common: e.g.
- 'mind what I say, and chase this 'mind what I say, and chase this vain desire from thy mind.' کو دِل سِے نِکال 'you sit here.'

mention to this slave anything you 'جو کُچے درکار هو اِس خانهزاد کو may require.'

may require.' کہیے (come again when you have spent اِس کو کھا پیکر پھِر آئِیو اَور جو this, and take whatever you want.'

'when she asks thy story, thou shalt 'جب تیرا احوال پُوچھے تُو کہِبو 'when she asks thy story, thou shalt say: I am an inhabitant of Persia.' say: I am an inhabitant of Persia.' 'and if not, do (i.e. you shall do) unto me whatever you please.'

Rem. The English Imperative being used to express a request as well as an order, it is not at all necessary to employ such phrases as "please to do," or "you will be pleased to do," etc., in rendering the Precative forms; nor indeed do these phrases at all represent the idea in a native's mind when he uses a Precative. We have repeatedly observed, that when a native scholar well acquainted with English is asked to render in Urdū such an expression as "please do this," he invariably uses the phrase az rāhē mihrbānī isho karo or kījiye. It is evident too that in not a few cases the phrases "please to," etc., cannot be applied: as for example in the following sentence, in which the speaker is soliloquizing: مَا اللهُ ا

461. The Precative ending in o is also employed in benedictions and imprecations: e.g.

'may you be happy!' خُوش رهِيو 'may you be happy!'
شرکوں أور مُشْرِكوں أور مُشْرِكوں أور مُشْرِكوں أور مُشْرِكوں infidels and believers in a plurality of gods!'

in connection with the Imperative usually express a strict negation, but the former is occasionally prohibitive (especially in connection with the Precative ending in iyo); the negative is used in a prohibitive sense, and hence occurs with the Imperative or Precative alone: e.g.

'be not afraid.' تُو دَّر نہِیں 'be not afraid.' آخِرت کے سامان کڑنے میں 'neglect not to make preparation for خفلت نہ کر the world to come.' آج گھر مت جاؤ

'rely not on their friendship.' أَن كِي آشْنائِي كَا إِغْتِماد نـ كريــــ

'you are not to approach this tree' (or 'thou shalt not go near this tree').

'you will not forget' ('take care that you don't forget').

Rem. As the negative $\dot{\psi}$ does not occur in the $B\bar{a}g$ o $bah\bar{a}r$ in connection with the Imperative, therefore, we suppose, the European grammarians say, that it "is not used with the Imperative." That it is so used will be seen from the first of the above examples, and we may add that (though not so common as $\dot{\omega}$) it is by no means uncommon in such cases.

463. The Aorist, which is connected with the Imperative both in form and signification, is used instead of it in the first and third persons, but usually with less authority than the Imperative: e.g.

what was it that he said? let me 'وُه کیابات تَجِي؟ ذَرّا مَیں بھی also just hear.'

let us see what is recorded in her دیکھیں اِس کے نصیبوں میں کیا destiny.'

نو خبردار رهيو آيسِي حركت نه 'you will be careful: let her not 'move so that the stitches give way.' ميري باس نه آوی 'let no one come near me' (not, "no one must come near me:" see Rem. d, § 439).

but let the princess promise this, 'but let the princess promise this, to wit, that she will not withdraw from what she has said' (not, "the princess must promise, etc.").

let no one plead advanced age as 'let no one plead advanced age as 'اکمال نہ حاصِل کڑنے کے لِیٹے عُمْر an excuse for not acquiring (not trying to attain to) perfection.'

464. Reversely, the Imperative is occasionally used for the second person singular of the Aorist, usually in the first of two correlative clauses which follow a particle implying a condition or the relative pronoun, when the second clause contains an Imperative: e.g.

'do whatever you think proper.' جومناسِب جان (= جانے) سو كر

Rem. The use of the Imperative for the Aorist is not so common as the grammarians suppose; it occurs, we believe, only in sentences of the description mentioned above. In the following examples the last verb is not "an Aorist in the Imperative form," but a simple Imperative: الله من أله عنه أله من أله

purpose or object of the verb in the first clause); جب تأبين تُو پارچڵنے 'in the mean time you make some arrangement to cross over' (not, "whilst thou formest some plan, etc.").

465. The Imperative, singular and plural, of the verb to take,' is often used as an interjection, signifying there or there now! enough! peace! etc.: e.g.

'enough! go on with thy work.' لے آپنا کام کر there now! I have told you my کے مَیں نے آپنی حقیقت سب whole history.'

there! you have seen me; is your ' لو مُجهِے دیکھا خاطِر جمّع هُوئي mind relieved?'

'I said: Now have done! you have tried subterfuges enough.'

d. THE SUBJUNCTIVE AND ITS TENSES.

I. THE AORIST.

- 466. The Aorist is used in the Subjunctive Mood, as a I'resent or Future, in correlative conditional clauses that depend upon اگر, or any particle having the sense of اگر. The conditional clause commonly precedes the principal clause (but it may follow it), and is separated from it by the جواب شرط, or correlative particle, تو, which is generally not translated. The Aorist is used in one or both clauses, according to the following rules:
- 1) a. If both the conditional and the principal clause imply uncertainty, doubt, possibility, or indefiniteness, the Aorist is used in both: c.g.

'if he should come, what am I to do?' اگر وُه آجاوی تو کیا کرُوں if permission be granted, I will state 'if permission be granted, I will state their case in your presence.'

honey would drop from the colo- حنظل سے شہد تیکے جو لگے نشتر رٽُبُور عسل

cynth-gourd if the sting of the honey-bee were to touch it.'

b. The Present Potential occasionally occurs in place of the Aorist in the principal clause: e.g.

if one look at the princess's do- اگر ملِک کِی سلطنت پر نِگاه كِيجِيب تو أُسْكِي آمد فقط باورچی خانے کے خرچ کو بھی کِنایت نه کرتی هوگِی ِ

minion, its revenue probably does not suffice (may not be sufficing) for the expenditure of the cuisine alone.'

c. And an Imperative may take the place of the Aorist in the conditional clause: as

'warm a little water and I'll bathe' تبورًا پانِی گرم کر دي تو نهاؤں دی دی ایک بیتا جیتا جاگنا مجھے دی 'bestow on me a living son, then will my name and the trace of this empire endure.'

Rem. The Aorist of the conditional clause may often be rendered in English by the Past Imperfect, as in the third of the above examples.

2). If the condition be regarded as uncertain, or only possible, etc., while the conditioned is regarded as certain and positive, the Aorist is employed in the conditional, and the Present or Future Indicative in the principal clause: as

'if you come, it is well.' اگر چلو تو اچها هی 'if it succeed, it is a great matter.' اگر بن آوي تو بڙي بات هي 'any one who pretends to this is a جو کوئي دعّويل کري اِسّکا بڙا نادان great fool.'

Rem. a. The Relative Pronoun, implying as it often does a virtual hypothesis, is commonly followed by the Subjunctive, as in the last of the above examples. (cf. § 388, Rem.)

Rem. b. The Future is often used in the conditional clause also, and occasionally where the idea of certainty is, to say the least, not very prominent (see § 442, Rem.); but wherever this idea is prominent, the Indicative is used in both clauses: e.g. اگر جنْد آوگے تو منجہے جستا 'if you come soon (as I expect, or am sure, you will), you will find me alive.'

with one or other of the conjunctions بشرط 'that,' ζ (= Lat. ul), i 'in order that' (= Lat. i) 'in order that' (= Lat. i) 'it may be that, perchance,' etc., to express an object or purpose, effect or consequence, resolution, hope, desire, disinclination, order, i0, i1, i1, i2, i3, i4, i4, i5, i6, i7, i8, i9, i1, i9, i

نے چاکس راہ سے چاکس (I determined to go (that I would go) by that road.'

'it appears better for men that they آڈمییوں کے واسطے یہہ بہتر معّلوم become recluses.'

¹ This construction, which is found in the Persian also, would appear to be derived from the Arabic.

the king should so treat his lords ' یادشاہ کو چاهیئے کہ اُمرا اَور ارکان دَولت سے آیسا بڑتاؤ کری کِہ أَنْكُو يَادُّشَاهُ كِي مُوافِقَتْ أُورِ نيک خواهِي کا يقِين هوجائے

and nobles that they may be assured of His Majesty's sympathy and good-will.'

a messenger (or emissary) should be عاهِیتے کِ قاصِد فاضِل هو one possessed of learning.'

ماهتت در بافت کری

if you have great desire to know 'اگر تُجھے آرزُو کمال کھی کہ یہ this matter.'

I am afraid that he may not perhaps 'مَين ذَرَّتا هُوں كِد شايد دُعائي بد نہ کری

curse me (or, according to an idiom of the language, 'that he may curse me').

Socrates (or, according to Johnson's 'بَقْرَاط نِهِ ایک زبان دراز عَورت سے شادِي كِي تاكِ اپْنِي قُوْتِ غضبِي کو مغلوب کری

Dictionary, Hippocrates) married a shrew in order to subdue his passion of anger.'

provided there be not as much as a ' بشرطیکِ جهُوته اِس میں کَورِّي بهر نه هو kaurī of untruth in it.'

perhaps his hand (treatment) may شاید (که .se.) اُس کا هاته راس آوی prove successful.'

Rem. a. In sentences signifying purpose, resolution, wish, etc., the Aorist may generally be rendered in English by the gerund with to, since this corresponds to the genitive (subjective) or the dative of the Urdū gerund, and this may in most cases be substituted for the construction with the Aorist: e.g. the first of the above examples may also be constructed thus: مَسِ نِهِ أُس راء سے چلنے كا قصد كِيا; and the .اگر تُجهي اِس ماهِيّت كي درّيافت كرّن كو آرّزُو كمال هَي :fifth thus

Rem. b. The direct oration often occurs in such subordinate clauses as express purpose or resolution: چلید پاس چلید پاس و پاس خلید 'and determined to go to my sister' (lit. 'that I will go'); آنگئیس دروازی 'my eyes were 'پی طرف لگ رهبی تیمس که دیکیسے کیا ظاهر هوتا هی دیکیسے کیا ظاهر هوتا هی (lit. 'saying to myself, Let me see what is going to appear').

Rem. c. The phrases پارم هَي , چاهِيئي, etc., may also be constructed with the infinitive (§ 439, and Rem. b. and c). In reference to past time these phrases take the forms لازم تها , چاهِیئی تها , and are followed by with the Past Perfect Subjunctive (the Past Conditional): e.g. پرغالب رهّت 'Your Majesty ought to have subdued your wrath.'

468. The Aorist is used to express a wish which, generally speaking, is regarded as attainable: as

may your life be prolonged! your 'عُمْر تيرِي بڙهي دَولت دُو چنْد wealth be multiplied!'

'may your crown and throne (your over a sovereignty) endure as long as this رهي دمين و آشمان برپا

469. The Aorist is used in questions indicating doubt or perplexity: as

'? God! what am I to do now? الرَّبِي اب کیا کرُوں (O God! what am I to do now? میا کہوں اَور کِسّکا شِکّوہ کرّوں should I complain?'

should 1 call it Indra's court, or a ' إنَّدركا اكبارًا كَهُونْ يَا بِرِيون كَا أَتَارًا descent of fairies?'

470. The second person, singular and plural, of the Acrist is used as a disjunctive conjunction: e.g.

I say nothing: remain or go (as 'مَسِ نہیں کہتا رہو چاہو جاؤ you please).'

II. THE PRESENT POTENTIAL.

471. The Present Potential, as its name implies, occurs chiefly in potential propositions, with a definite or indefinite subject, and indicates that a thing may, might, or must be happening: it corresponds therefore to the English Present Imperfect Subjunctive. It stands to the Aorist in the same relation as the Present Imperfect Indicative to the Present Indefinite; and hence the Aorist is often used in its place. Of the two forms in which it occurs, that in which the future of the verb is used may occasionally be rendered in English by the Future Imperfect Indicative; but those who speak the language recognize no distinction between the two forms. The following are examples of its use:

what must he be thinking?' (lit. 'saving in his mind').

perhaps you think (lit. may be شاید تُو جانّتا هوگا کِ مُجّکو یہ سب فراغت أور دولت ہے مشقت حاصِل هوئِي

thinking) that I have become possessed of all this comfort and wealth without trouble.'

thousands of such poor people must أيسے غريب هزاروں تُمهاري مُلْكوں میں آتے جائے ھونگے

be constantly passing through (lit. may be coming and going in) your dominions.'

-that ruler ought to be well ac وُه حاكِم أيسا هونا چاهيئے كِ ساست کے قاعِدی خُوب حانّتا هو

quainted with (lit. such as may be knowing well) the laws of government.'

(and if the king look (lit. be looking) أور جو باذشاء بيدار هو سلطنت کے کارو بار پر توجُّه کرتا هو تو كِسِي طرح سلطنت ميں خلل نہیں آتا

watchfully after the affairs of his kingdom, no disturbance by any means enters the realm.'

there is no such sentence in his ' أَسْكَ كَلَّام مِس كُونِي فِقْرِه آيسا نہیں ھی جس سے کسی کی بد خواهبي ٺابت هوتي هو

discourse whereby malevolence towards any one may be proved.'

III. THE PAST POTENTIAL.

472. The Past Potential is employed when it is indicated that a thing may, might, or must have happened. It has two forms, corresponding to those of the Present Potential, but no distinction is generally made between them: c g.

Your Majesty may (or must) have آپ نے بہد بُبت سُنی هوگی heard this couplet.'

God knows what their state may نُحدا جانے أَنْكِي كيا حالت هُوئي هوگي have been.'

(هُوئِي .50) هوڳي کيا هِي مکانِ دل جسّب شا هوگا

what a very charming residence بحِس وفت تَسَارِي اِس كِي must have been made when it was first constructed' (lit. when its preparation may have taken place'). 'he mentions the kindnesses which he جو دُوسَرِي شَخْص يا أُسَكِ or his forefathers may have done بُزُرگوں كِي نِسْبِت هُولُت هوں بيان كُرْتا هَي

بین کرہ ھی بین کرہ ھی 'do you also mention whatever 'تیری گُرود نے جو ظُلَم آدمِیوں کے oppression your tribe may have suffered at the hands of men.'

Rem. The third of the above examples is thus rendered in Prof. Monier Williams' Hindūstānī Grammar (p. 136, § 510): "When it shall be repaired, what a charming place it will be made." But although this tense may sometimes be rendered in English by the Future Perfect, it is never used in the sense of, and can certainly never be rendered by, the Future Indefinite.

IV. THE PAST CONDITIONAL.

- 473. The Past Conditional corresponds to the English Past Perfect Subjunctive. It has two forms, the one (which is that most commonly used) consisting simply of the imperfect participle of a verb; the other of the perfect participle in combination with the imperfect participle of the verb U.s.
- 474. The Past Conditional is used in correlative conditional clauses that depend upon اگر, or any particle having the sense of اگر. In the leading clause it may generally be rendered in English by the Future Perfect Subjunctive: e.g.

had you seen what I have seen, you 'had you seen what I have seen, you 'هی هرگِز اُنگے یاس نہ آتا would never have come near them.'

جومُجہیے مُرید کرنے کِی خواهِش نه هوتي تو مکيں چورکِي چرّب زبانِی سے فریب نہ کھاتا

of what use would a blind son have ' أندها ببتا تُمهاري كس كام آتا؟ جو کُچھ بیٹا کرتا مکیں بھی کر سکنیا ہوں

so that the evils which would result ' نا کہ اُسکے فسال سے جو ضرر پیدا ھوتے نہ ھونے پائیں

had any one else committed such ' اگر کسی أور نے یہ حرکت بے سعنی کی هوتی اُسکی بوتِیاں کٹوا چیلوں کو بالتیے

you would have been unjustly (or "أو ناحق ماراكيا هوتا برجيه كيا needlessly) killed, (had you been

if the desire to make a disciple had not possessed me, I should not have been deceived by a thief's oilingss of speech.'

been to you? I too can do whatever a son would have done.' (The is here under-اگر هوتا stood in both sentences.)

(lit. would have resulted) from his mischief (were he permitted to practise it) be not allowed to happen.'

senseless impropriety of conduct, I would have had him cut into mince-meat, and portioned it out to the kites.'

killed), but you (have) escaped.'

Rem. a. The condition, as we have shown in some of the above examples, is sometimes omitted. It is occasionally implied in a negarive clause preceding the principal clause: e.g. مَسِي نِے أُس مبر كَجِهِ 1 perceived nothing grand ' شکود نہ دیکھی جو زور اُس کا دریافّت کرتا in him to make me test (lit. that I should have tested) his strength. This sentence is taken from the Khirad Afroz (p. 62), and the following note upon it by the editor of the work serves to show how completely

the Past Conditional Tense is misunderstood by European grammarians: "The agrist instead of the present here, and a neuter verb instead of an active, might well be expected. As it is, the sentence is quite ungrammatical."

- Rem. b. As it is sometimes necessary to render the Past Perfect Indicative of the Urdū by the English Past Imperfect, so the Past Conditional has occasionally to be rendered in English by the Past Imperfect Subjunctive. Such is the case in the fourth of the above examples. (cf. § 457.)
- 475. Instead of the Past Conditional, the Past Perfect Indicative is occasionally used in the principal clause, for the sake of greater vividness; but it may be rendered in English by the Past Indefinite; as

had it not been for this wise enemy, اگریبه دانا دُشمن نه هوتا شمن نه هوتا تها سیم work was well nigh gone from igh my hands, and my life brought to a close in (pursuit of) this ider.

476. The Past Conditional is also used to express a wish for a thing that is regarded as unattainable, and is then commonly preceded by the conjunction كَاشَكِ or كَاشَكِ or كَاشَكِ O that!' 'would that!' e.g.

'would that I (lit. we) had not left کاشکے اُنکو وہاں نہ چبوڑ آتے them behind there!

would that I had not cherished a بندگی پَبدا نه کِی هوتِی اَور یِبه devoted attachment to you, and شفقت جو صاحِب میری حق shown for me the tenderness which you have shown and still show (lit. which you are showing)!

Rem. The use of کاشکے however is not always necessary; a wish may be implied even in a conditional sentence: e.g. اگرزید هوتا توکیا "If Zaid were (or, had been) here, how nice it would be (or, would have been)' = '1 wish Zaid were (or had been) here.'

e. THE PASSIVE VOICE.

- 477. When the agent of an act is to be named, the Active Voice must be employed (except in such tenses as are composed of a perfect participle of directly transitive verbs, which are undoubtedly passive in construction, though regarded as active by those who speak Urdū). But the subject of a sentence is frequently not specified, either because it is not known, or it is not desired to mention it. The speaker, however, has the option of expressing himself personally by such forms as لوگت کہتے میں or لوگت کہتے میں 'people say' (Fr. on dit), کہنے والا کہنتا کی one calls' (or 'it is called'), or کہلاتا ہی 'one says, or one who is in a position to say, says;' or by means of the Passive Voice used impersonally, in the it will دیکیا جائیگا third person singular masculine; as be seen to; or personally as explained in the next paragraph.
- 478. The personal passive is commonly used in Urdū; the direct object or accusative of the active voice becoming the subject of the passive: e.g.

'when a hole a yard deep was dug.' جب ایک گز عمِیق گُرها کهوداگیا 'it (the following fact) has been نابِت کِي گِتابوں میں یہہ بات proved in philosophical works.' 'when a lie is told regarding any one نِسْبت عَیب نِکالْنے کے واسطے to make it appear that he has بیاں کی جائے faults.'

'you had been unjustly killed, but تُو نا حنى مارا گيا هوتا پر به گيا you escaped.'

Rem. If the accusative in the active voice be constructed with مر , the same form may be retained in the passive; but the passive then becomes impersonal: e.g. يَاتَكَارِ كَهِ لِحَاظَ سِي اگر أَسْكُو بَهِي دِيكِهَا جاوي 'if it too be viewed as a memorial;' lit. 'if it be looked at in reference to it also as a memorial.'

479. If the verb in the active voice governs two accusatives, that which has the nominative form, or which is next to the verb, becomes the nominative to the passive: as

if the two be compared;' lit. 'if comparison in reference to the two be made.'

it is right that that person be called مناسِب هَي كِ أُس شَخَص كو 'it is right that that person be called بنائي كاركها جاوي the architect of the work;' lit. 'it is right that architect of the work be called or said in reference to that person.'

- Rem. a. As the perfect participle is often used as an abstract (verbal) substantive, and the verb المجند is also employed in other constructions than that of the passive voice, many expressions which are not passive are mistaken for such by European grammarians: e.g. نبيس جاتا 'I cannot bear to see (it),' lit. 'seeing, or seeing it, by mo is impossible' (not, "it is not seen by me:" ef. § 426).
- Rem. b. Whether the passive be personal or impersonal, it is termed by Urdū grammarians مَا لَمْ يُسَمِّ فَاعِلُهُ mā lam yusamma fā'iluhu, 'a

verb of which the agent is not named.' In the case of a personal passive, the subject is called قائم مقام فاعل 'that which stands in the place of the agent.'

Rem. o. Impersonal actives, like our it rains, it snows, etc., are as a rule expressed personally in Urdū: e.g. پاني پاتا هي , or پاني پاتا هي , or rains,' lit. 'rain, or water, falls, or rains;' but the expression برستا هي , alone, is also used.

f. CAUSAL VERBS.

480. The construction of causal verbs has been explained at length in § 199, et seq. If the primitive verb is intransitive, the causal is simply a transitive verb, and is constructed like other simple transitive verbs that take a single objective complement in the accusative; ar منز کو گون جلانا هي 'he shook the table;' who is shaking the table?' But if the primitive verb is transitive, the causal takes two objective complements in the accusative, which are constructed according to the rules laid down in § 348 and Rem.: e.g. مَس نَّ وَدُ تَنِيلِي النِّي يلانِي يلانِي النَّ 'give me water to drink;' مُنْ يَانِي يلانِي يلانِي اللَّهِ 'is howed him that bag.' Both the objective complements, however, are not always expressed; as 'he fed all the beggars.'

g. COMPOUND VERBS.

481. Compound Verbs are of seven' kinds; namely, Intensives, Potentials, Completives, Continuatives formed with an imperfect participle, Frequentatives or Con-

¹ By an oversight the Continuatives formed with imperfect participles, and Transitives formed with conjunctive participles, have been omitted in the enumeration of the compound verbs in § 218. The oversight has been noticed in the errata, and the reader is requested to make the corrections there pointed out.

tinuatives formed with a perfect participle, Desideratives, and Transitives formed with a conjunctive participle. To the remarks already made concerning these (see § 208, et seq.) we may here add the following:

Rem. In some intensive compounds, the verb which indicates the act is placed last and conjugated, the intensifying member preceding it and remaining unchanged: e.g. أمار دِيا = دي مارا (or he) laid on to (him); 'قلك دِيا = دي قلل 'I (or he) threw or dashed (him or it) down.'

2), 3) Potentials and Completives must always be constructed actively in the tenses composed of the perfect participle, as in the other tenses, since the verbs سُن and سُن are intransitive: e.g. سُن (not صُحَلَ هُمِين 'we have already heard.'

Rem. For the idiomatic use of the Past Indefinite Tense of verbs compounded with ڪُل , see § 210.

4) Continuatives, formed with an inflected imperfect participle, and one of the verbs نام or رهنا ما , cannot but take the active construction

in all the tenses, as رهنا or رهنا are intransitive verbs (cf. § 481, 1): e.g. وهُنِي or وُمْتِي (she keeps on (or is always) prating in this same way.'

Rem. The participle in these compounds must always be inflected (see § 212, as also the Rem. on § 213). In the following examples, which are given under the head of Continuatives by European grammarians, there is nothing of the nature of a continuous or repeated act implied in the verb; the participle has the force of a finite verb, and very properly agrees with the subject of the sentence: تُمْهَارِي هَاتِي هَاتُ وَاللّٰهُ وَاللّٰ

striking (out) my hands and legs in the water the whole day and the whole night.'—Continuatives are also formed by prefixing an inflected perfect participle to the verb جو هم کہیں سو .(see § 214, b): e.g. بلا عُذْر کِیئے جائِیو 'go on doing what I say without demur.'

Rem. We must here repeat that whenever a verbal substantive in any form is compounded with a transitive verb, the compound verb is actively constructed in all the tenses of the active voice: c.g. آدُوي كِي أَلْ a man's voice was heard' (lit. 'gave a hearing,' i.e. 'made itself heard'); دو آدوي دِکهَائي دِيكُ 'two men showed themselves, or appeared.'

7) Transitives formed with a Conjunctive Participle cannot in any case be passively constructed, for the reason given in § 481, 1: e.g. أن 'I have brought the book with me;' كتاب كو اپنے ساتھ لايا حُوں (أن كتاب كو اپنے ساتھ لايا حُوں (أن كيس نے اللہ لايا كيا (not چيزوں كو كوں (كيس نے 1) لے گيا 'he left the boy behind here.'

Rem. Although the participle which most commonly occurs in these compounds is that of the verb لينا 'to take,' there is nothing in the nature of the construction to restrict it to this participle: حجورً جانا 'to leave behind,' دي جانا 'to leave, or give on (one's) way,' etc., are compounds just as much as النا and its centraction is 'to come with, to bring' are; and in the mouth of a native the former no more signify "having left, to go," and "having given, to go," than the latter signifies having taken, to come.

482. Nominals, Staticals, Inceptives, Permissives, etc., are not compound verbs (see §§ 205, 213, 216). Of the Nominals we shall have more to say further on. The construction of the participles in statical forms has been fully explained in § 421, et seq. The Inceptives, etc., call for little notice beyond a few examples of their use:

- 2) Permissives.—An infinitive in the dative form of the accusative, with the postposition مح suppressed, is constructed with the verb دیدی, which in this construction has the sense of to allow or permit: as حویلي دویلي 'let (him) remain in the house;' میں رهنے دو اگر پاک صاف پاتے هیں 'if they find (them) unpolluted, they permit (them) to enter.'
- 4) Desideratives.—In these an infinitive constructed as in the Permissives, etc., is used in connection with the verbs المالك عمل ا

483. Nominal Verbs. — The so-called Nominals are commonly, though incorrectly, regarded as Compound Verbs. They consist simply of a verb and a predicative substantive or adjective, which is in the nominative case if the verb is a neuter one denoting existence (either simple or modified), and in the accusative (the nom. form) if the verb is transitive. In the first of these cases the verb agrees with its proper subject (unless the predicative substantive is defined by a genitive or adjective, § 293); and a predicative adjective, if it be declinable, also agrees in gender and number with the subject: as

if he shall not be reared in my اگریِه میري رُوبرُو ترَّبِیَت نہ presence.'

'all these seven girls were standing.' یے ساتوں لوّزکیاں کھڑی تھیں۔ 'that their morals become correct.' کِ اِنکے اخْلَاق دُرُست ھو جائبں 'and one's helping another is possible أور إعانت ایک دُوسْری کِی جب 'only when they dwell together.

Rem. a. The predicative noun most commonly comes immediately before the verb, as in the above examples; but it may also follow the verb, as is frequently the case in poetry: e.g. أيسي مِهمان كِي تو لازِم the heart of such a guest ought indeed to be (esteemed) precious.'

Rem. b. Even what are clearly phrases are erroneously classed by European grammarians among what they term "Nominal Compounds." Now in phrases the substantive and verb stand to each other in relations distinct from those specified above, the substantive being either in the nominative as the subject of the verb, or in an oblique case: e.g. أن كو 'they remembered' (properly, 'recollection came to them');

you' (for the use of نآ with the Dative of the possessor see § 340);

پیت میں آگ لگی 'the fire (of hunger) kindled in (my) stomach;'

(so. مین یاد (میں علی اللہ) 'I also called to mind what the wazīr' had said' (properly, 'to me also the wazīr's saying or remark came into recollection');

وقات پر کام (میں so.) آتا کی وقات پر کام (میں اتعالی اللہ) 'so that on occasion it comes of use' (properly, 'into use').

484. In the case where a predicative noun in the accusative is added to a transitive verb, the verb may be one which requires a single objective complement alone, or it may be a factitive verb (see § 349). In the first of these cases the predicative substantive necessarily becomes the subject of the verb in those tenses which are passively constructed with the Agent case: e.g. أَنْ مَارِي 'he dived (a dive was taken, lit. struck, by him).' In the second, the construction of the verb in the same tenses depends upon the accusative of the object: if this be in the nominative form, the verb (as also a predicative adjective, if it be declinable) agrees with it; but if it be in the dative form, the verb (as also the adjective) is impersonally constructed (see §§ 348—350): e.g.

much as they searched for the key of that lock, it was not found ' (properly, 'much as the key of that lock was made search for by them,' etc.).

he dismissed the demon' (properly, 'there was performed by him the act of dismissing in reference to the demon').

کاڙِي کپڙي کپڙي کي 'he made the cart stationary' ('the eart was made stationary by him').

أوّي كو كهڙا كِي 'he made the cart stationary' (properly, 'it was made stationary by him in respect to the cart').

Rem. a. The only instances in which a factitive verb (in the passively constructed tenses) can agree with the complementary accusative are those in which by a change of construction this becomes really or virtually the only accusative in the sentence: e.g. 1) when a sentence following the verb takes the place of the object; as عرض کیا ک 'he made representation, saying;' (here however some writers would put the verb in the masc. sing. عرض کیا ک , to agree with the objective clause (see § 307); 2) when the place of the object is supplied by a substantive which is governed in the genitive by the predicative substantive; as یا شعریف کی تعریف کی 'the king praised it' ('the act of praising was performed by the king in respect of it'); 3) when the factitive verb is connected by أور تنبیه کی 'and,' with another verb that stands nearest to the common object of the two verbs, this object being in the dative form of the accusative; as 'in the reproved and admonished the magistrate's peons.'

Rem. b. If the predicative substantive is determined by a genitive, it may be separated from the verb by one or more words; as أِنْلُهَا رَجِلانِهِ أُور رُونِهِ وَغَيْرِهُ سَمِ كُرْتًا هَي 'it (a child) manifests this faculty by screaming and crying.'

CHAPTER XI.

PARTICLES.

I. ADVERBS.

485. The rules for the construction of adverbs are given in § 283, et seq. Sentences like the following are in nowise opposed to those rules, since نوفي is both a negative adverb and a negative verb (= فرفي , see § 148, Rem.), and in the latter sense therefore may stand last in the sentence:

the form and fashion of one agrees ایک کِي سجّدهج سے دُوسْرِي کا not with the shape and figure of another.'

there is no order to open the gate ' اِس وَقَّت دَرُوازِه کَهُولُنِي کَا حُکُم at this time.'

486. The particle خ, which has both a conditional and an emphatic force, is often added to the negative نہیں, forming in the one case an alternative conjunction (see § 499), in the other an emphatic adverb signifying no indeed.

Rem. The adverb تو is often used idiomatically in Urdū, and is untranslateable: e.g. کر تو سبي 'just do it.' After the verb دیکها تو see,' it may generally be rendered by he phrase 'and lo!' as دیکها تو ه

سب اپنے کام میں متروف کیں 'he looked, and lo! they were all engaged in their respective tasks.'

487. The adverb کہاں 'where?' is idiomatically joined to two different subjects to indicate a very great difference, marked contrast, or incompatibility, between them or their circumstances: as

otherwise what possibility was there of our meeting?' (lit. 'where I and where thou? our paths lay so wide apart that we could never have met, but for this accident').

this speech is quite unsuitable to ' تُو کہاں اَور بِہہ بات کہاں thy position.'

thy position.'

there is no comparison between کہاں گنگا تیلی

King Bhoj and Gangā the oilman.'

Rem. Compare with this use of كہاں — كہاں that of 新一部 kva—kva in Sanskrit.

488. The adverb (or) may be added for emphasis to any part of speech, and may generally be rendered in English by very, the very same, but, alone, etc., though sometimes simple stress upon the word to which it is joined (shown in writing by the use of italies) is sufficient: e.g.

(my) heart alone knows.' بل هِي جانّتا هَي in one single (or in but one) assault.' ايک هِي حمّله ميں 'the very same young man came.' وُهِي جوان آيا 'but (after all) she did yield to her cajoling.'

II. PREPOSITIONS AND POSTPOSITIONS.

- 489. Prepositions and Postpositions serve to show the relation of one substantive to another, or to some other word in the sentence.
- 490. Some postpositions govern a noun in the Formative only, some in the genitive case only, some take the governed noun in the Formative or the genitive. Lists of the prepositions and postpositions together with the case they govern are given in §§ 236-240. The following are a few that have special significations or uses in addition to those specified in the lists:
- such is the reflection of the flower- عمّس گُلْشن يَهِ زَمِيبن پر هَي كِ such is the reflection of the flower- garden on the ground that, compared therewith, the painting of Mānī (Manes) stands second, it first.'

1) I before, is used of comparison: e.g.

Rem. The postposition ... 'in front,' may be used in the same sense.

2) ساته, which as a postposition signifies 'with,' along with,' as a preposition, with a demonstrative pronoun following, usually signifies in addition to, notwithstanding or although (= the Persian باوُجُود): e.g.

Mohan went away to Hāhābād موهن رَيد كے ساتھ اِلا آباں چلا گيا (Allahabad) along with Zaid.

in addition to that life will pass 'in trouble (or difficulty).'

notwithstanding that (or although) ساته أَسْكَ كِ وُهُ آپ چهوتا آور he himself be small and feeble and his foe powerful, there is still hope of victory.'

3) طرف 'towards,' 'to,' is used both of *local* direction and of *feeling* or *conduct*, generally preceding, in this sense, an Arabic verbal noun: e.g.

he is gone towards (or to) the market;' (the corresponding Hindī postpositions in this construction are تك and يازاركي طرف گيا هَي

'tender compliments from me' (lit. ميري طرف سے سلام كهـ دينا 'from my side' = Fr. de ma part).

he becomes inclined to (fond of) very 'بُرِي بُرِي باتوں کِي طرف مَيَلان evil things;' (the corresponding Hindī postposition in this sense is بري.).

to become suspicious of (lit. to-کِسِي شَخْص کِي طرف سے بدگماں) wards) a person.'

'he needs the labours of several کئیے شخصوں کے کاموں کِی طرف persons.'

Rem. In both the above senses the postposition أرف is the Urdū rendering of the Arabic preposition إلى; and the idiom in sentences like the last three of the above is borrowed from the Arabic. The postposition بازىب 'side, direction,' is rarely used of feeling or conduct.

4) نزدیک 'near,' as a postposition, is often used in the sense of in one's opinion (like the Lat. apud, and the Fr. chez), a sense in which باس do not occur: c.y. نزدیک 'in the opinion of the wise.'

491. A feminine postposition requires the noim it governs in the genitive to be constructed with in agreement with itself; but if the postposition be used as a preposition, i.e. precede the noun it governs (which can only occur when it is a Persian or Arabic word), the genitive of the governed noun will be constructed with \leq (see § 243): e.y.

ناری کِی مانِنْد تاری کے 'like a star.' , ناری کِی مانِنْد تاری کے 'concerning him or it.' , اُس کِی بابت اُس کے 'they are like physicians and astro logers.'

) by the aid of the understanding, بمدن عمّل کے , 'by the aid of the understanding,' in accordance with (or according to) your ordering (= order).'

In the first of these cases the construction is that of the Hindī, in the second that of the Persian (whence the occurrence of none but Persian or Arabic prepositions in the construction). The use of the genitive affix \leq is due to the influence of a Persian preposition (most commonly ω), which governs the postposition in the genitive. This preposition, though not expressed in the case of which, etc., is implied in the construction, and, being originally a masculine noun, requires the use of the affix \leq with the genitive of the governed noun. The same

¹ This construction is not only employed with "some of the feminine prepositions," as European grammarians say, but with all such as are Persian or Arabic words. Nor is it "arbitrary" no Urdū scholar would, we are assured, say or write maining parucāne $k\bar{t}_{i,j}$ 'like a moth;' but as no distinction is usually made in writing between maphāl and matrūf ye, it is quite possible for an Englishman to mistake $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \int_{0}^{\infty} k\bar{t}_{i,j}$, when the writer intends it for $ke(\sum)$.

e.g. جے مرّضِي حُنُور کے , without her highness' pleasure; بے مرّضِي حُنُور کے , without her highness' pleasure; بے مرّضی مشورت کے , without advice and counsel. It is true that we also meet with such constructions as اُسْکِي بے مرّضي (se. ج), with his or her displeasure; but in such cases بے is a prefix, not a separate preposition, and the words بے مرّضی, etc., are treated as simple Hindī postpositions.

Rem. If the preposition من is expressed, even a preceding genitive is constructed with the affix عندا کے بنسبت آذمی : as قادِرِ مُعْلَق خُدا کے بنسبت آذمی : as قادِرِ مُعْلَق خُدا کے بنسبت آدمی , how very insignificant is man compared to the Almighty! And not only does من , expressed or implied, require the genitive to be constructed with کے , but, according to the native grammarians, کے is in some instances used as the equivalent of من (see § 318, Rem.).

III. CONJUNCTIONS.

- 492. The combination of coordinate and subordinate propositions is effected by means of conjunctions.
 - Rem. Lists of some of the principal conjunctions are given in § 247.
- 493. Coordinate Combination.—The conjunctions used in coordinate combination are the Connective (Copulative, Disjunctive, Alternative, Negative), Adversative, Exceptive, and Conclusive.
- 494. The Connective conjunctions do not affect the structure of a sentence.), 'and,' is the one most used simply to connect words and sentences. But the omission of it (Asyndeton) is of frequent occurrence (see §§ 217, 275, 362).

- is also used idiomatically to denote:
- 1) The almost simultaneous occurrence of the acts indicated by the verbs in two propositions which it connects; as سَور تُمهاري أُنّهُ الله الله أَنّه أَنّ
- 3) Defiance or threat; as مَس تُمْكُو =) بِيْرِ مَبِي هُوں اَور نُم هو hen I am and you are (i.e. 'now I will settle accounts with you'); اب تُو جان اَور برّا بنت جانے, now you know and the great idol will know ('the great idol will settle accounts with you').
- 496. The negative i, repeated, has the signification of our neither—nor; but the conjunction أور is often prefixed to the second i: e.g. ند المنك كو دُوسَّري سے تكليف ند أسكو اس سے, neither does one suffer inconvenience from another, nor that annoyance from this; نيسرى وُد كلام هَي كه أس ميس , the third is that speech wherein there is neither harm nor benefit.
- 497. The disjunctive conjunction یا 'or' (as an alternative یا اسیا 'either—or'), is used in the sense of both the Latin rel and aul: e.g. برابر نه تها برابر یا بسیاری ایکے برابر نه تها می مسافر فغیر یا بسیاری ایک مسافر فغیر یا , any traveller, (whether) a devotee or a man of the world, who enters this city.

Rem. یا اس is sometimes used to indicate a remarkable contrast arising from a sudden change; as يا سُن سان هو گيا , but now there was that (such) display, and the next moment all became desolate.

- 498. The conjunction کے, which more commonly occurs in subordinate clauses, is also used as a disjunctive, signifying 'or:' e.g. وهاں تُم جاؤگ که مَسِیں, will you go there or shall I? بُم نے کُچھ عِلْم مَنْطِق کا بھي سِيکھا هَي کِ نہيں, have you learned anything of the science of logic also or not?
- 499. The compound conjunctions برند and برند and نبس تو and تتب به 'otherwise,' 'or else,' are used in stating an alternative; as تتب مرا كلاجا تابندا هو نهبس تو اس غُق كي آك مبس بينك رهي هوس , مسرا كلاجا تابندا هو نهبس تو اس غُق كي آك مبس بينك رهي هوس , then (perhaps) my heart (lit. liver) will be quieted, otherwise I am burning (shall continue to burn) with the fire of this wrath; ود حاكم أيسا هونا چاهبند كي سياست كي قاعدي , that ruler should be such a one as is well acquainted with the laws of government, or else decline will overtake the state.

Rem. The following are examples of some of the remaining disjunctive conjunctions: يَمْكُو جانب نه دُونَكَا بُرا مانو خواه بيلاً, I will not let you go, (whether you) take it ill or well; مَين نهين كهنا چاهو رهو (it say nothing; either go or remain, as you please.' For examples of كيا—كيا see § 397.

500. The Adversative conjunctions are مگر, لیکن , پر (which however is more commonly exceptive), بنک , etc., signifying but, yet, still, but rather, on the contrary. They are used in stating a proposition which alters, limits, or sets aside what has preceded, and do not affect the struc-

Rem. مگر is sometimes used, as in Persian, in the sense of شاید perhaps:' as مگر أسكو گپر كے دروازی پر as, this feelingless husband of mine perhaps saw him at the door of the house.

اس 502. The Conclusive or Illative conjunctions are المنافعة والمنافعة والم

- 503. Subordinate Combination.—The conjunctions employed in subordinate combination are the Hypothetical, Temporal, Concessive, Comparative, Causal, and Final.
- 504. The Hypothetical conjunctions are جو, 'if,' جو, 'when,' etc. These are construed with the Indicative or the Subjunctive, as shown in § 466, 1) a, and 2), Rem. b. The regular correlative of the first two is تو; that of the third تر. But the correlatives are not always expressed; and even the hypothetical particle is occasionally omitted, as in the following sentence: شرفي يُوں هي بُخوشي يُوں هي , when, or if, her pleasure took this course alone, what could I do?
- ing synonymous, the one is sometimes used for the other; as أوراگريه سب سامان and تب being synonymous, the one is sometimes used for the other; as أوراگريه سب سامان, and even if all these pliances be obtained, then even it is evident, etc.; حب آذمي كو أيسا , when a mun عاصل هو سكتي هي when a mun acquires such knowledge, wisdom may thereby be attained.

Rem. تو is now commonly used instead of تو as the correlative of حب.

is sometimes used in the sense of جو أَسْكو كَيُولْكُر دِيكِهَا تَو وُهُ جَوَانِ أَور أُسْكِي رِنَّذِي سِركَتِّ as جب أَسْكو كَيُولْكُر دِيكِهَا تَو وُهُ جَوَانِ أَور أُسْكِي رِنَّذِي سِركَتِّ, when he opened it and looked, lo! that young man and his paramour were (lit. are) lying beheaded.

أب جو is occasionally used in the sense (1) of جب أمس خوب أمس that, and (2) of رتب, in which ease the conditional clause, if expressed, may follow, being introduced by the conjunction in the sense of جب معتلوم هُواك تُم أُنيوں as ربح المور به أسلام أبيوں, now that I know that you are acquainted with their history, I give thanks and say this, etc.; اتا أبيون هي جب كُجة آتا أبيون من من أسلام من من أبيون هي أبيون أبيون

in combination with the postpositions (ما عب in combination with the postpositions (عب الله) and (which however rarely occurs in modern Urdū), forms temporal conjunctions, signifying whilst, until, as long as; and the same postpositions are repeated after the correlative بن when this is expressed. These conjunctions are construed with the Indicative or the Subjunctive (the Aorist, which is however rendered in English by the Present Indicative), according as simple fact or contingency (design, etc.) is indicated. They are often followed by the negative (or نبس), and may then be generally translated 'as long as,' 'so long as:' e.y. خب تك بي المحافظة على المحافظة المحاف

- 510. The Comparative conjunctions are those which express a resemblance. They are شيخ 'as,' لويا 'as if:' e.g. جيسا رائے دابشلبم كا مُلكَ آسُوده أور رعيّت فارغ بال تعي as Rāc Dābishlīm's kingdom was tranquil, and his subjects contented; هرگيز هوا أسكو نهيس لگنتي گويا فانوس أسكى آسمان هي

the wind never touches it; (it is) as if the sky is its shade.

- 511. The Causal conjunctions are those which are used in stating a reason. They are , and others which are ete. رُجُونْکِ رکیُونْکِ راِس واسطے کِ as کِ اِس واسطے کِ et. They may mostly be translated for, because, since, seeing that, inasmuch as, etc. The following are examples of اِسْكے دِل میں تو محبّت اب تلك باتِي هَي جو اِس their use: اِسْكے دِل میں ا in her heart , جان كندني كي حالت مين أسْكو ياد كرتي هي indeed affection still lingers, seeing that she remembers مبيري يكزُّنے كى خاطِر جو قبُول كِيا هَي ; him in this death-agony fulfil what you agreed , پُورا کرو که ساری ڈیل میں زباں حلال کھی to for my capture, for in the whole body the tongue is (the only) free (and therefore responsible member); أشكى بات كا إِخْتِبار نه كري إس واسطے كِ خُعِل خور اكثر إعْتِباركے فائل نهيں هوتا let him put no faith in his statement, for a tale-bearer, generally speaking, is not deserving of credit; زر و جواهر پر فریغّت هونا دانِشْمنّدوں کا کام نہیں کیونّکِ وُد کِسِی کے پاس نہیں رحّتے it is not the work of the wise to be infatuated with gold and jewels, since those (things) abide with no one.
- 512. Final conjunctions are used to denote the purpose or consequence of an action. They are constructed with the Subjunctive, as shown in § 467. To the examples there given may be added the following: شادِ بندر کے خَوف , through شادِ بندر کے مبادا چہیں لے کنیزکوں کو صندوقوں میں بند کِبا, through fear of the harbour-superintendent, they locked up their slave-girls in (their) chests, lest he should take them by force.

CHAPTER XII.

ON THE DIRECT ORATION.

513. The indirect oration is rarely employed in Urdū. The words and thoughts of a person are usually expressed in the direct oration, introduced by the particle \leq , which however is frequently omitted (cf. also § 445): e.g.

نه اگر یه قصد هي که شهر مسین 'if it is your intention to enter the the city' (lit. 'if this is thy intention: "I will enter, etc."').

he told me my sister was sick' (lit. 'he said to me, "Thy sister is sick"). بیمار کمی

he pondered how he should earry 'فِكْر مِين گيا كِه كِس صُورت سے أَن away those rubies' (lit. 'how shall I carry away, etc.').

ن منیں نے أن سے كہا تُمهارى ساته 'I told them that I also would accompany them' (lit. 'I said to them, "I also will accompany you"').

APPENDIX.

ON THE CALENDAR.

The following remarks on the Musalman and Hinda Calendars are mostly taken from Forbes's Hinda-tima Grammar.

THE MOHAMMADAN CALENDAR.

"The Musalmans reckon by lunar time, their era called the Hin a commencing from the day on which Mohammad retreated from Mekka to Medina; which, according to the best accounts, took place on Friday, the 16th of July (18th new style), a. p. 622. Their year consists of 12 lunations, amounting to 354 days and 9 hours, very nearly; and hence their New Year's Day will happen every year about cleven days earlier than in the preceding year."

"To find the Christian year corresponding to that of the Hijra, apply the following rule:—From the given number of Musalman years deduct three per cent., and to the remainder add the number 621.51; the sum is the period of the Christian era at which the given current Musalman year ends. This rule is founded on the fact that 100 lunar years are very nearly equal to 97 solar years, the difference being about eighteen days only."

"When great accuracy is required, and when the year, month, and day of the Mohammadan era are given, the precise period of the Christian era may be found very nearly, as follows:—Express the Musalman date in years and decimals of a year; multiply by 97; to the product add 621.54: and the sum will be the period of the Christian

"The Mohammadan or lunar months are made to consist of thirty and twenty-nine days alternately, but in a period of thirty years it is found necessary to intercalate the last month eleven times, so as to be reckoned thirty days instead of twenty-nine. The months retain their Arabic names in all Mohammadan countries, as follows:"

LUNAR MONTHS.

DAYS.	DAYS.
möḥarram 30	rajab : ::00
safar 29 صفر	sha'bān 29 شعبان
rabī'u'l-awwal 30 ربيعُ آلاوِل	ramaṣān 30 رمضان
رسعُ آلڤانِي rahī'u's-sānī رسعُ آلڤانِي 29 rabı'u'l-ākhir	shawwāl 29 شوال
rabi'u'l-ākhir	يَّةُ عُدُهُ الْمُعُدُّهُ عَنْ الْمُعُدُّدُ عَيْ ٱلْمُعُدُّدُ الْمُعُدُّدُ الْمُعُدُّدُ اللهِ اللهِ اللهُ الله
jumāda'l-awwa' 30 بجمادَي آلُول	عَدْد بَ يَعْدِد) يَّذِي قَعْدِه) عَدْد يَّ فِي قَعْدِه
jumāda 'ṣ-ṣānī) جمادَي أَايَّاني	اَجِجَهُ نَتِي اَنْجِجَهُ (l-ḥijja)
jumāda ˈs-ṣānī) 29 29 إِنَّانِي الْآخِر 1/ jumāda 'l-ā <u>kh</u> ir)	29 · · · عَيْرِي حِجْهُ أَيْ ذِي حِجْهُ

The following are the days of the week in Urdū, Hindī, and Persian:

	rant.	HINDI.	PERSIAN.
Sun.	itwar إتوار	rabī-bār رىيبار	يكشنبه yak-shamba
Mon.	pīr پېر (or سوموار)	80m-bār سومتبار	du-shamba دُو شنّبه
Tues.	mangal منتگل	mangal-bār منگلبار	sih-shamba سِهٔ شُنْبه
Wed.	budh بُدة	budh-bār بُدهْبار	-chahār چهار شنبه
Thurs.	jum'a جمعه رات	brihaspati- برِهَسْپتبار	shamba پنجشنبه panj-sham-
Fri.	rāt den jum'a .	bār sukru-bār سگربار	ba آفرینه آفرینه
Sat.	sanīchar سنياچر	sanībār سنِيبار	shamba شنبه or هغته
			or hafta

The Hindus regard the day
but the Mohammadans regard it
so that 'the night of a certain
nifies 'the night of the previol
'Friday night,' is really 'Thu

THE

two parts, each called path, 'lust topics,' the tight is the cast of two parts, each called path, 'lust topics,' the light is a first of two parts, each called path, 'lust topics,' the light is a first of the fight is a first of the light in the light is a first of the light in the light is a first of the light in the light in

The era however which is compatible to the variable of Yan and the compatible of Uppain.

Another common era, especially a forther land than It is called sāka, and date a same source for the same and saka.

नान बहादुर ज्ञास्त्री राष्ट्रीय प्रज्ञासन ग्रकादमी, पुस्तकानय Lai Bahadur Shastri National Academy of Administration, Library च्न सुरी MUSSOORIE.

यह पुस्तक निम्नाकित तारीख तक वापिस करनी है। This book is to be returned on the date last stamped.

दिनांक Date	उधारकर्ता की संख्या Borrower's No.	दिनाक Date	उधारकर्ता की संख्या Borrower's No.
	- A Accessor and -		
	-		
Budhalloninining allowing the way also distant. Bushing with the	· -		
		· .	
		·	
-			
1	+		

निगम दिनार Date of Issue	उधारकर्ता की सम्या Borrower's No.	हम्नाक्षर Signature
an anti-dependent statement	~ -	
	-	
	-	
		_

LIBRARY

LAL BAHADUR SHASTRI National Academy of Ain a stray on

MUSSOURIE ,1 · . 10

if urgenti, Fiu e i

Acce

- 1 Books ara issue! i i. - oa'. ad ailar but may have any
- 5 An overdue cha ji 21 Pasa per day per volune with conind
- 3. Books may be shown to the dest at the discre on of his Lin at an.
- 5. Periodicals, Rine and Referince books may nor ba soue I and may be consulted only in the or an
- 5. Books los le relor minim any way shall have a be reprised